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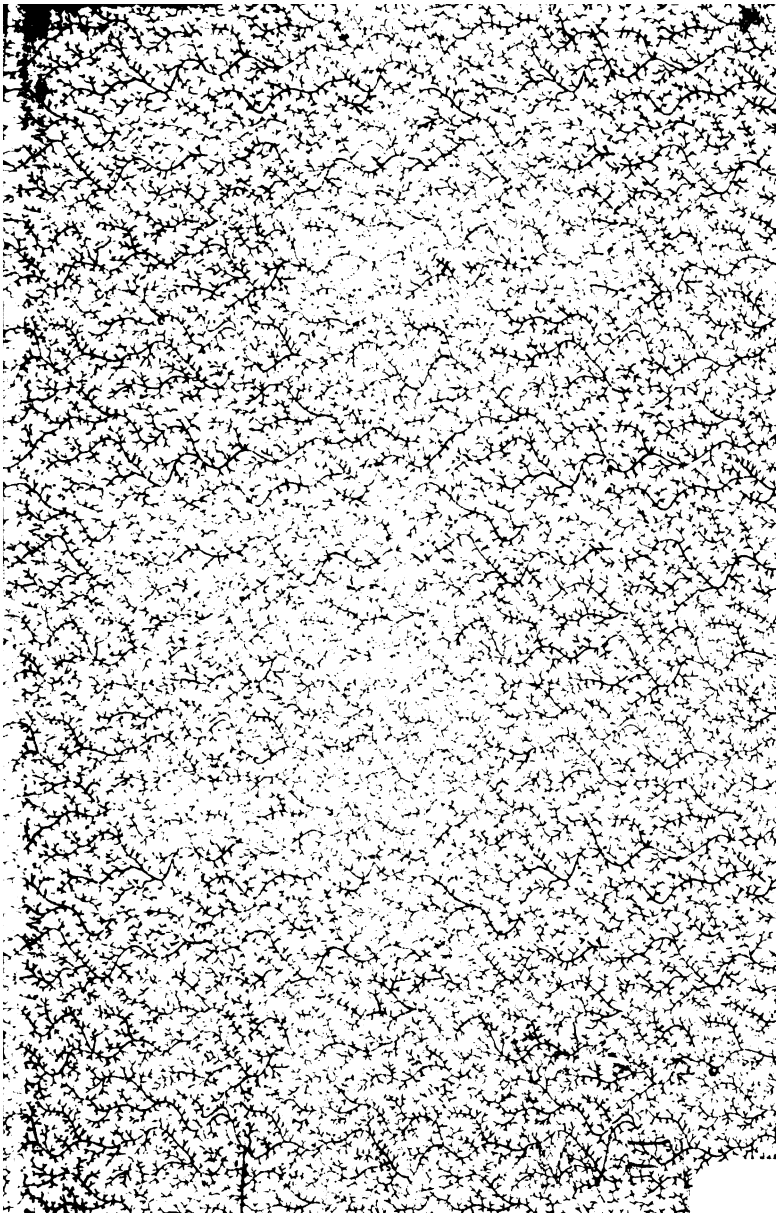
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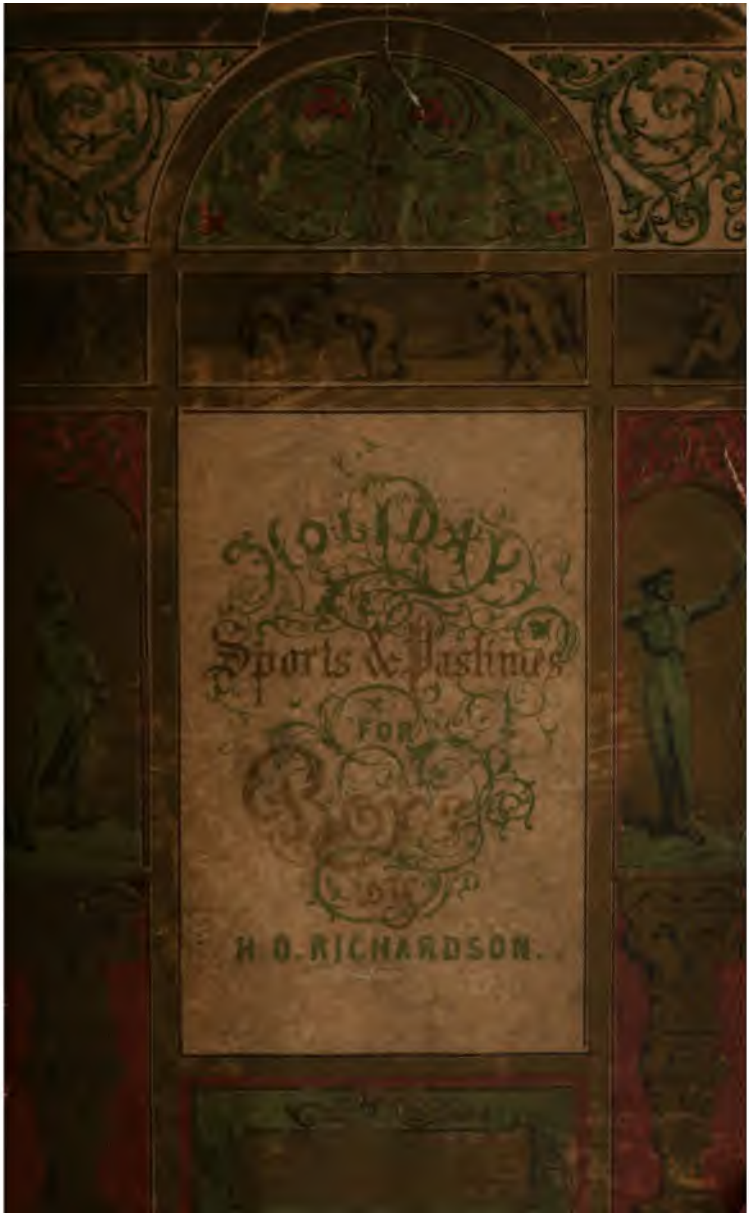
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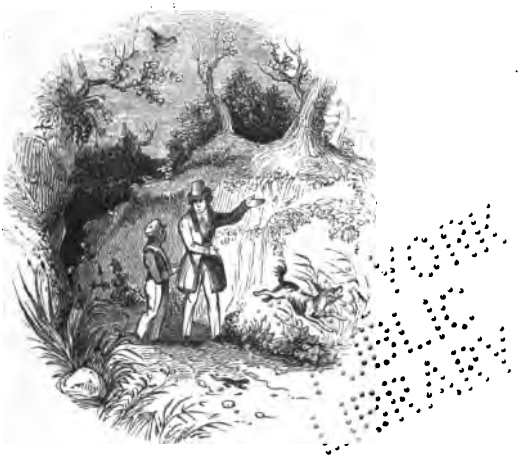
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HOLIDAY

SPORTS AND PASTIMES

FOR BOYS.

BY H. D. RICHARDSON,
AUTHOR OF "DOGS; THEIR ORIGIN AND VARIETIES," ETC.



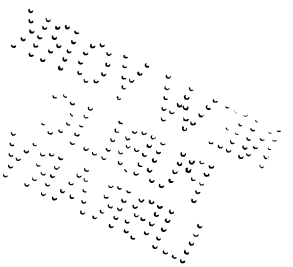
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PREFACE.

So few persons ever think of reading a preface that I fear it is almost a work of supererogation to write one; it is, however, necessary that I should offer one or two remarks relative to the appearance of the present volume, and the grounds upon which I assert my competency to write it. I feel these remarks the more imperative from the fact, that such other works as I have had the honour of presenting to the public, are so very different from the present in subject, object, and detail.

When a youth I was ardently attached to athletic sports, and at most of such exercises met with few rivals and fewer superiors. I was for three successive years victor at the Scottish games. I won, wore, and retained the champion medal of the Holyrood Gymnastic Club, of which Club I was also President or Captain—an office to which I was annually re-elected while I remained in Scotland. I have heard much of remarkable feats in high leaping; I can only say that I was never personally vanquished. My peculiar method will be unfolded when treating of that exercise. As a swimmer I was long known as the champion of Newhaven, whither it was my custom to resort every morning during a long and happy residence in Edinburgh. As a runner I had few superiors; and at gymnastic exercises generally was anything but a mean proficient. Of course, at this period of time, and at my present time of life, nothing in the shape of a desire to *boast* of my juvenile exploits can be supposed to lurk in these remarks; they are merely designed to show why I

write upon such a subject, when my path has hitherto been in the fair fields of lovely nature, and to demonstrate to my youthful readers that the following pages are the work of one practically conversant with his subject. I can also assure them, that I have not for many years experienced more real pleasure than while employed in inditing these pages for their amusement and direction; for the task has recalled, in the most vivid manner, sweet recollections of bygone days of youth, of those happy times when as yet there was no past, when the present was full of joy, and when the future seemed as clear and unclouded as the blue sky of sunny Italy. It has, indeed, afforded me much pleasure thus to revert to the days of boyhood, and in imagination once more to mingle with my youthful compeers on the noisy playground, and renew each boyish struggle in the merry game.

It were superfluous to enter into a dissertation upon the advantages or the necessity of exercise. It has now become universally admitted. Let my young friends recollect, with Dryden, that

"The wise for health on exercise depend;"

and let their worthy seniors aid them in the attainment of that health, by affording them all legitimate opportunity for exercise, with a view to the attainment or maintaining of health; bearing in mind that memorable observation of Cicero—

"Neque enim ulla alia re homines proprius ad Deos accedunt quam salutem hominibus dando."

H. D. R.

Dublin, Nov. 10, 1847.

CONTENTS.

PAGE

SWIMMING 1

ATHLETIC SPORTS 18

Putting the stone ib.

Throwing the hammer 20

Pitching the bar 21

Throwing the quoit 22

SPORTS OF AGILITY 24

Walking ib.

Running 26

Leaping ib.

Leaping with the Pole 31

Vaulting 32

The down leap 33

CRICKET 34

ARCHERY 47

The cross-bow 53

PLAYS AND SPORTS 56

Hunt the hare ib.

Prisoners' base ib.

Catch and keep 57

Cross tig ib.

PAGE

PLAYS AND SPORTS:

Stag or Warning 57

Leapfrog 58

Fly-the-garter ib.

Follow the leader 59

GAMES WITH TOYS 61

Rounders ib.

Hurley, bandy, or shinty 62

"Tip cat and run" 63

Foot-ball 64

Hand-ball, or fives 65

Quoits 67

Tops ib.

Marbles 71

Hoops 75

Kites; their construction, &c. ib.

ANGLING 78



SWIMMING.

SWIMMING is perhaps one of the most healthful and delightful of recreations, and its effects upon the animal frame are of the most beneficial description; nor do its advantages stop here—the human mind is, to a very considerable extent, regulated and acted on by the condition of the body; when the latter is feeble or lethargic, the mind, in most instances, will be found to exhibit a corresponding want of energy and tone; and when the powers of the body sink, those of the mind will usually be found to fail with it. No doubt but that, as is the case with every general rule, exceptions to this will in many cases be found to exist; but they are few in number, of rare occurrence, the result of peculiarities of constitution, or idiosyncracies, and display themselves too clearly

in the light of marked exceptions to admit of doubt as to their real character.

In order, then, to maintain the mind in such a healthy and vigorous condition as to admit of its receiving and retaining impressions, of acquiring new ideas, new facts—in other words, of advancing in the paths of knowledge—it is obvious that proper attention to the state of the bodily functions, in short, to what is called animal health, is a subject of primary importance. This applies to all ages, to all descriptions of persons, but more particularly to the young, to those whom it is desired to initiate in the rudiments of such knowledge as will prepare them for whatever career is to be the lot of their future life. The old saw,

> "All work and no play
> Makes Jack a dull boy,"

is not a whit less true than its converse. In order to preserve the body in health, many conditions are required,—such as fresh air, temperance, and others, of which youth scarcely requires to be reminded, and which the teachers are themselves perhaps more likely to neglect attention to than the pupils,—but recreation, exercise, cleanliness, are circumstances productive, in their attention or neglect, of even still more important results. Most of my young readers will recollect Æsop's beautiful rejoinder to the would-be critic. The old philosopher was detected by an impudent young spark in the act of playing at marbles with some youths: the youngster jeered at the sage, on the score of his unphilosophical employment, and ridiculed him for his childish humour. Æsop made no direct reply in words, but he took a bow, and having strung it, said, "Whether do you suppose, young sir, that this bow will longest retain its strength if kept thus, always bent, or if unstrung when not required for service?" The moral was obvious; the critic was silenced, and slunk abashed away, while the sage quietly resumed his game.

The necessity of exercise, as occupying no inconsiderable portion of the time of youth, has been long recognised. Even when the writer of these pages was a boy, he recollects that gymnasia were beginning to be established in many boarding-schools, and that athletic sports were not only countenanced, but encouraged, and in many cases presided over by the principals of the establishment. He himself now looks back with happy and grateful feelings to many a delightful game of cricket or of football, in which he had his kind master for a rival, or haply for an umpire; nor did this *unbending* on the part of the preceptor ever, in any one instance that ever came under the author's knowledge, produce a shadow of disrespect, an iota of neglect in the performance of those mental exercises to which school-hours were legitimately appropriated. On the contrary, the moment the deep-toned bell summoned us to the school-room, all our games were at once thrown aside, and we rushed as eagerly and cheerfully to our desks as we had previously hurried to our play-ground. And were our tasks deemed tedious, did we hang over them, slovenly, and impatiently count the hours, until again dismissed? No, far from it; the balance between mental and bodily exertion had been too happily adjusted to admit of such results, and the consequence was, that we loved our master and our tasks—we were pleased—our teachers were pleased with us; and our parents and guardians were—and they had reason to be so—satisfied with both. What has just been remarked will serve as an introduction to the following subjects generally, and specially to SWIMMING, as one of the most delightful of out-door sports.

SWIMMING possesses, however, yet further claims upon our consideration than those to which it is already entitled, merely on the score of exercise and recreation. One of the most powerful conducives to the preservation of the body in a healthy state, is *cleanliness*, and in no manner can this condition be more effectually obtained than by the practice of swimming. Nor does the utility of this recreation stop

here. The SWIMMER, to adapt to this subject the sentiment of the old historian, is twice a man; for surely, if the acquisition of every additional tongue, over and above that with which nature has gifted us, makes us once more man, the same may be justly said of an art which bestows upon its possessor the mastery over an additional element. How frequently has the utility of swimming been manifested in accidental immersions in deep water, from the upsetting of a boat, or other incidental causes; how often has the uninitiated sunk hopelessly beneath the wave, while the swimmer, when similarly circumstanced, has gallantly breasted the heaving billows, and either succeeded in righting and re-entering his bark, or borne away, fearlessly and smilingly for the distant shore: that which was to the non-swimmer destruction, was to the adept in the art but a capital joke.

Nor is swimming to be advocated solely on considerations of a sanatory or selfish character. Many a time and oft has the practised swimmer been the means of saving a fellow-creature from a watery grave; and what words can ever convey the ecstasy of the sensations which were then his—an ecstasy equal, if not superior, to those of the fellow-being who has become his debtor for a life. He who has ever been so fortunate as to possess an opportunity of thus rescuing a brother-mortal from perishing, can alone appreciate those exquisite sensations, but describe them he cannot. And surely that man has become possessed of a double existence; for he must henceforth live not only in himself, but in the life which he has been the means of saving.

All, then, should swim. This being granted, it will perhaps be inquired, Why do not all swim? The reason is obvious; all the lower animals swim naturally, or at least are able to do so, if placed in circumstances requiring that they should make the attempt—Why then not man? Because the possession of REASON, man's high prerogative, enables man to feel more acutely than any other creature FEAR—the fear of

death. This FEAR paralyses his energies and renders him helpless. The untutored savage, whose reason has never been developed by education, approaches in this respect more nearly to the tribes of inferior animals, and we usually find him aquatic from his cradle. It is one of the most powerful tendencies of civilization, of refinement, to replace nature by art, until in some cases she is almost wholly superseded. As an illustration of the correctness of this observation, it may be stated, that animals, much removed by artificial breeding and culture, from their primitive condition, experience an almost equal deterioration in their faculties, or perhaps it were better to say, a substitution of artificial qualities for those of nature. The high-bred pointer dog will set and point his game on first being introduced to the field. Culture has supplied him with a hereditary instinct for so doing; but the same dog, left to his own resources in the wilds of an uninhabited country, as yet untrodden by the foot of man, would starve, while his savage brethren of the wilderness would riot in plenty.

And even this will apply to swimming. A highly bred pointer pup, if thrown into the water for the first time, will splash and flounder, and, if unaided, will probably drown; while his less artificial congener will breast the current as vigorously, and with as measured strokes, as if the water had been his element.

It is, then, to *reason*, aggravating his fear, and to the displacement of natural and instinctive powers by artificial culture, that civilised man owes his inability to swim. What, then, is to be done? Are we to regret that man should have received this culture? Are we, on this account, to deprecate the advancement of civilisation, and to laud the life of the savage? Decidedly not; but as ART has deprived man of this power, let us employ similar means in order to produce its restoration. Hence swimming has become an *art*,—one capable of being imparted by one person to another,—and an art at once useful, necessary, and easy of acquisition; so

easy, indeed, that the medium of written instructions will be found sufficient to convey a knowledge of it.

Before commencing any description of cold bathing, it is advisable that a medical man should be consulted; for in our present state of artificial culture we are liable to many glandular and lymphatic obstructions, which should be removed prior to it, otherwise the bath will aggravate them; hence what is called "bathing disagreeing." There are also other conditions of body in which cold bathing is prejudicial,—as a plethoric or full habit of body, obstinate constipation of bowels, &c.; and hence the common practice of taking a course of gentle aperient medicine, previous to commencing the bathing season. Too long-continuance in the water at one time, or entering it when overheated or chilled, are also highly to be reprehended, as likewise bathing immediately after a heavy meal. These are the only obstacles to unlimited indulgence in this delightful pastime; but as a little attention will remove them, and as neglect may be productive of very serious, if not fatal, consequences, it is trusted that these observations will not be lost sight of, either by the juvenile or parental reader.

In order to learn to SWIM, you have only to overcome *fear*, and to exercise a small share of patience; if you be a coward, or flurried in your movements, you will never be a swimmer until you change. We shall show you how to conquer fear,—unless you be, indeed, unreasonably timid,—and then you have only to perform all the movements that will be described, in a methodical manner; in short, to *take things coolly*, and you cannot fail of success, and that immediate.

The best time for swimming, but especially for learning, is in the middle of a warm summer's day, about a couple of hours after breakfast. Select for the purpose clear water, free from weeds or scum, with a level sandy bottom, which gradually slopes from the shore, and no where deeper than will reach to your chin. Avail yourself of the company of some person older and stronger than yourself, and who has

already acquired the art. Let him first enter the water, and satisfy you of its depth and the character of the bottom; his presence will also aid in giving you confidence. The sea is the best water for swimming or bathing in; its waters are possessed of greater *specific gravity*, are more *buoyant*. River water is next in the list; and a pond, lake, or other standing water, the least unobjectionable of all.

Now, to acquire confidence. What is it that you fear?—That the water is incapable of supporting your weight? That you will sink? It is not so easy to sink as you suppose; and to prove it, enter the water until about up to your middle, turn towards the shore and endeavour to take up a stone from the bottom. In this attempt you will probably not succeed; or, if you do, it will only be after a hard struggle. Let this give you confidence; and in future recollect that it is more easy to float than to sink.

You may next lean forwards gradually, extending your arms before you, with your hands together, sideways, the palms from you, and the thumbs only in contact. Just as your chin reaches the surface of the water, inhale a deep inspiration, and, while doing so, draw your arms steadily towards your sides. You will, unless your heart have failed you, and thus occasioned these movements to be made in an irregular or unsteady manner, find your feet leave the bottom, and that you have thus succeeded in supporting yourself. It is now a good plan to suffer one foot to remain upon the bottom, and thus afford partial support, while you endeavour to propel yourself with the other. In order to progress, repeat the movement just described, and, as you draw your arms towards your sides, draw up your legs, or if you must keep one foot on the ground, you are at liberty to do so for the present, you will very soon make it do its duty as well as its fellow; and as you again extend your arms, strike your feet out steadily behind you. This will propel you. A repetition of these actions is SWIMMING. Recollect to *strike* with steadiness, and not too rapidly, and to inspire and

respire at the proper moment; viz., the former as you extend your arms, and the latter as you draw them towards your sides.

Should you find your own unaided efforts insufficient to enable you to acquire the method of performing these movements, get your companion to place his hand beneath your chest, and lean forward upon it; but let no one induce you to employ *corks* or bladders. These appliances are dangerous in their use, will only cause your progress in the art to be more tedious, will, when once adopted, be found difficult to lay aside; and the writer never knew a really good swimmer who learned by their assistance.



You can now SWIM; you have achieved your grand object; practice until you swim a distance of forty or fifty yards with ease and steadiness. You need not now be so particular about a sandy or level bottom, but, on the contrary, will rather seek for deep water, as a large body of water below you will support you better than a small one; and hence it is far more easy to swim in deep water than in shallow. Take care, however, and do not yet trust yourself in deep water alone. The best swimmer is liable to *cramp*; and the enjoy-

ment of a few moments' "sporting in the silver flood" would be dearly purchased by an untimely death.

You must now acquire *changes of action:* these changes of posture and action are a great source of relief to the swimmer, if he have a considerable distance to perform,—the thus calling another set of muscles into play affords ease to those which have been hitherto in requisition; in fact, these changes are the swimmer's modes of taking repose.

The first and most important change, is from vigorous exertion to total inaction,—this is called FLOATING. In order to float you have only to suffer your legs to drop, and to incline your head backwards, leaving only your mouth, nose, and eyes above water,—this is perfect rest. If you wish to progress while floating, expand your chest by a long inspiration, and extend your arms backwards, under water, behind your head, until your hands meet; draw them towards your sides, the palms forward, and the thumbs upward, the hands also slightly curved forward; at the same time *expiring* and gently raising the head, so as only to oppose the back of the neck to the water. Some can progress very rapidly in this manner. If you choose, you can also bring your legs into play; but if you are seeking to recruit your forces, you had better keep them still. You may then rest your arms, keeping them at your sides, and gently moving your hands at your hips, as a fish does its fins, while you strike out with your legs,—this, and every other *change* of motion, produces *rest.*

TURNING from face to back, or from back to face, while swimming, is performed much in the same manner as turning in your bed. You drop the arm and leg opposite to the side to which you turn, and embrace, as it were, the water with the other. This whole movement is, however, a complex and a *natural* one, and you have only to act in obedience to the impulse of your will in order to perform it.

SWIMMING UPON THE SIDE is a beautiful and graceful mode of progression in the water, and particularly calculated for very great speed for a short distance. It is thus performed:—you

incline to your right side, presenting that side of your head and that arm to the water, striking out with that arm to the full extent, as usual; and with the other, to the fullest extent its position will admit of without *stretching;* then draw both in again, while drawing up your legs, with the thumb towards the surface of the water, and palms towards your body; the left arm and hand will also, after a little practice, serve as an additional oar, corresponding to the stroke with your legs. This complication of movements will obviously produce extraordinary rapidity; but it cannot be long continued. You can, of course, swim on either side. For swimming a long distance, let your legs lie deep in the water, and do not strike more frequently than you can help; never strike until you feel that the progress obtained by the last stroke has been entirely exhausted. A man, if a fair swimmer, should make, on an average, nine feet at each stroke—many, more; a lad of fifteen should make six. One great secret in swimming is, to take your time. One good even stroke is worth three hurried ones; be cool, and you will "win, like Fabius, by delay."

There are many other different modes of swimming, not, however, of any practical utility; we shall, consequently, notice them cursorily:

I. SWIMMING ON THE BACK, FEET FOREMOST.—Curve the body slightly at the seat and hams; keep the feet stiffly stretched out, the heels and toes being in contact; stretch the hands forward over the body, and let them describe small circles towards the breast; at each stroke the loins are slightly curved.

II. TO DISPLAY THE FEET ABOVE WATER.—Bend the small of the back downwards, wave your hands in circles, but slightly striking downwards, above your breast; keep the chest inflated, and raise the feet above water.

III. TO SWIM LIKE A DOG.—Strike alternately with the pair of limbs belonging to each side of the body, *i.e.*, with

each hand and foot, drawing up one foot, and striking with the hand and arm of the same side, then the other side, and so on, in somewhat the manner of an ambling horse.

IV. To swim like a porpoise, or the long reach.—Extend one of the arms as far out of the water, reaching forward with the hand as you can, and thrusting the shoulder forward with it, while at the same time the legs strike out; draw the hand towards the body, the arm forming a wide sweep, and the palm of the hand curving somewhat inwards; draw up the legs at the same time; then, while striking them out, repeat the process with the other arm and shoulder. This is a more useful practice than the three preceding ones; as it affords some relief from change of action, while at the same time the swimmer continues to make some progress.

V. Beating water.—While floating, raise your legs alternately out of the water, and bring them down with violence.

There are many other feats which require, indeed, no particular instruction; but which you will discover yourself as you progress in the practice of the art of swimming. There are one or two other important particulars relative to swimming, which it would be improper to omit:

I. To tread water.—Suffer your legs to drop until you become perpendicular, then tread downwards with your feet alternately. Some recommend paddling with the hands at the hips; but you must learn to tread water without that assistance, as your principal object in learning to do so is, that you may have the free use of your hands, to afford assistance to a drowning person, or for any other purpose.

II. Diving.—Leap from a height, at first of not more than a foot above the surface of the water, with the hands joined, palm to palm, and the arms extended above your head; keep the eyes open, as it is not easy to open them under water if you go to any depth. When you wish to ascend you have only to turn your head upwards to the

surface, or even merely to cease your exertions to sink, and you will soon come up. You may dive from the surface while swimming; by turning the head downwards and springing upwards, striking with the legs. Of course it is unnecessary to add, that you should never leap into water without having ascertained that it is sufficiently deep.

THE LEAP FROM A HEIGHT.—Lest you should ever be placed in such circumstances as would require you to plunge into the water from a great height, it is well that you should be aware of the mode of doing so without risk; for if you fall flat upon the surface of water from any considerable elevation, the effect will be nearly the same as if you had fallen upon wooden boards. The leap from a height may be managed in two ways—*feet foremost* and *head foremost;* the former is the most simple and the easiest mode of plunging. It is only necessary to leap forward into the water, extending your feet slightly forwards, in order to preserve a due balance, and being careful to keep your legs close together. When you enter the water, begin at once to endeavour to check your descent by swimming upwards for the surface; for otherwise, if you have leaped from any great height, and the depth of the water be proportionate, you may sink farther and remain longer beneath the surface than you might desire.



To LEAP HEADLONG from a great height only requires *nerve*. When once achieved, this mode of leaping from a great height is safer than the preceding; as the head, the heaviest portion of the frame, being downwards, there is less likelihood of the balance being lost, or of the body turning in its descent, and consequently of its striking the surface *flat*. This leap is performed thus:—Stand upon the extreme edge of the point from which you are to leap, whether from the pinnacle of an overhanging precipice, the yard-arm of a man-of-war, or any other lofty position; raise your arms, with the palms joined, above your head, stiffen every joint, and, as if you were all of a single piece, suffer yourself gradually to lean forward: you will fall headlong, and cut the water so noiselessly, that, at a little distance, the splash would be almost imperceptible. It is scarcely necessary to remind you, that such a mode of leaping can only be resorted to when the height to be leaped from *overhangs* the water; under other circumstances a run of a few yards, and a gallant leap outwards, is the preferable mode. In either of these ways you may leap from very great heights with not only safety but pleasure.

The author was one of six gentlemen, who, every morning during spring, summer, and autumn, used, about ten years ago (1836), to bathe from the extremity of the chain-pier of Newhaven (near Edinburgh). Here we had a snug little box in which to dress and undress, from ten to thirty feet of water below us, and a plunge varying from ten feet to thirty-five. This was a good school in which to acquire skill in the delightful art of swimming; and some of us did not prove wholly unworthy of it, we ourselves having swam across the Firth of Forth at the Queen's Ferry,—a feat similar in many respects, as regards distance, current, and water, to that celebrated passage of the Hellespont, commemorated by Lord Byron, performed nightly by the loving Leander, in his clandestine visits to the fair Hero; and once unsuccessfully attempted,

but subsequently performed, by the noble bard and Mr. Ekenhead:

"Leander, Ekenhead, and I did—"

Alas! it is with poignant regret that we must record, for the caution of our youthful readers, the fate of one of these swimming companions whom we have mentioned: he rashly plunged into the sea, from a rock in the neighbourhood of Granton, about three miles west of Edinburgh, where a beautiful pier has been since erected; as usual, he entered head-foremost,—alas! he had miscalculated the depth, his head was dashed to pieces upon a sunken rock, and he never rose again. The body was subsequently found, and the frightful nature of the injuries showed that death had been instantaneous.



CRAMP.—A treatise on swimming would be incomplete if it omitted devoting a few lines to this terror of swimmers—"the bather's bane." To describe the nature of the attack would be unnecessary; when once felt, it will announce itself in such a manner as not to be mistaken. If attacked by the cramp, retain if possible your presence of mind; if you lose it, you must certainly perish; strike out the afflicted limb with all your force, throw yourself on your back, cry out for

assistance if any be within reach, if not employ your arms in progressing towards the shore. It is, however, an unfortunate fact, that such is the excruciating, overpowering torture, consequent upon an attack of the cramp, that any advice which could be furnished for its conquest, when once it has seized upon the swimmer, would, in ninety-nine cases out of one hundred, prove useless. The only advice likely to prove at all serviceable will be contained in the following remarks:

I. If *subject to cramp*, never venture beyond your depth at all.

II. Never swim to any distance, without the attendance of a boat. A good swimmer can display his abilities in a small as well as in a large extent of water. The celebrated American, Dr. Biddle, who exhibited his swimming powers about ten or twelve years ago, at Leith, chose for his purpose a small and rather shallow tank of salt water to the right of the pier. Some silly persons ridiculed the exhibition, and some grandiloquent gentlemen of the press denounced the whole affair as absurd, and expressed their disappointment that the Doctor had not "plunged into the sea from the extremity of the pier, battled with the briny waves, and at least have swam round the Martello Tower." This would have been no extraordinary feat, but one which any average swimmer could have performed with ease; whereas the Doctor's performance, as exhibited in the tank, was, to a swimmer, who understood the difficulties surmounted, very extraordinary. We were present on that occasion, and some of our natatorial friends; and we recollect how, as each feat was performed, our opinion of our own aquatic powers became gradually reduced, till at length it fell to 0; and yet, in those days, we used to make no contemptible figure in the water. Dr. Biddle, on another occasion, swam from the mouth of the Mersey to a point, the name of which has escaped us, a distance of TWENTY-FIVE MILES AND UPWARDS!

You will therefore perceive, that swimming to a distance is

not necessary in order to test your powers, or to make a display of them.

III. Never go to swim, especially out of your depth, unless you are accompanied by at least one friend, who can swim as well as yourself.

IV. Should you desire to aid a drowning person, beware of suffering yourself to be seized or grappled with. The safest mode of proceeding is to swim round the unfortunate, and permit him to become somewhat exhausted; the moment you can seize upon the hair, do so with the left hand, the arm being extended from you, and avoid all contact, or instead of rescuing your friend you will but add yourself with him to the list of those who have perished beneath the waters.

V. It may happen that you are present when a comrade is dragged from the water, after having been submersed for a sufficient length of time to become insensible. This is called SUSPENDED ANIMATION. Should there be no one but yourself present who understands the proper mode of proceeding under such circumstances, you must at once tender your advice. Do not suffer the body to be suspended by the feet, as some foolish persons do, under the impression that this is necessary, in order to admit of the discharge of water supposed to have been swallowed by the sufferer. Have the body, as soon as possible, laid in a warm bed, between the blankets—let it be rubbed perfectly dry with flannel cloths—let hartshorn be applied to the nostrils, and a tea-spoonful of some stimulant be poured down the throat; if these means prove unavailing, after having been persevered in for about ten minutes, apply the pipe of a bellows to one of the nostrils, closing up the other nostril and the mouth,—let the air be gently injected until the chest becomes inflated, and then withdrawing the bellows, and leaving the nostrils and mouth at liberty, press down the chest; persevere in this, and at the same time have hot bricks or smoothing-irons applied to the soles of the feet, and friction with warm cloths continued. Do not despair,

work away vigorously; and meanwhile let a surgeon be sent for in all haste.

We have not given any description, in the preceding pages, of the various apparatus that has been at various times employed for the purpose of teaching the art of swimming; and perhaps it would not be irrelevant if we did so, previous to dismissing the subject altogether. In Paris, Vienna, Copenhagen, Stockholm, Petersburgh, Amsterdam, Berne, and Berlin, there have for some time been established regular swimming-schools, some under the support of government, and others supported by private associations. Some years since there were educated in the Swimming-school of Denmark 105 masters, destined to teach the art in all the cities of that kingdom. All were instructed on the same system, and they are said to have learned, in the short space of less than four months, to swim a distance of nine miles! The same method has been adopted in the Prussian swimming-schools, and with much success. The apparatus consists of a *girdle*, which is passed round the pupil's body, to which is attached a rope, which is again, in its turn, fastened to a pole held by the teacher, who, standing upon a platform above, leans it upon a horizontal rail. The various movements necessary to the act of natation are then decomposed, and one by one imparted to the learner. The principal features in this system, are, the complete power which the teacher possesses over the person of the pupil,—a power calculated to inspire confidence, and a strict regard to *time*, or regularity of motion. Regularity of stroke, and harmony of action, constitute the great essentials to success as a swimmer. *Time* is no less important in swimming than in music; and without due attention to it, all our other efforts will become confused, ungraceful, and abortive.





ATHLETIC SPORTS.

"PUTTING THE STONE."—This is a very excellent description of exercise for giving vigour and volume to the muscles, more particularly to those of the right arm and shoulder. The game consists in ascertaining who can "put" or cast a heavy stone or iron ball to the greatest distance.

The "putter" stands at the mark, usually a scored line on the ground, from which he is to throw; his left leg and side are somewhat advanced, and the left foot "toes the score;" the left arm and hand are also somewhat extended, in order to preserve a due equilibrium. The right leg is somewhat bent, and the right arm raised, the elbow being kept as much as possible from turning; the hand resting with its back upon the shoulder, and the palm supporting the stone or ball. The body is then gradually swayed backwards and forwards, the right knee meanwhile alternately

relaxing and stiffening, until a sufficient degree of impetus be gained, when the ball is delivered; the place where it first touches the sod is marked—that is the extent of the throw. Practice alone—combined, of course, with a moderate share of personal strength—will form a good "*putter:*" strength of itself, unaided by art, will do little or nothing; we have ourselves witnessed the defeat of a herculean porter by a small and slightly made youth. On the other hand, it is not easy to express upon paper the precise *knack* on which *putting* depends. A few hints may however serve:

There are two descriptions of weights thrown—the light and the heavy. For a man, the light weight is 16lbs., and the heavy 22lbs. Such were the weights in use in our time, at the Scottish border games. For a stripling or lad, of from twelve to sixteen, the light ball may be 10lbs., and the heavy 14lbs. weight; or 8lbs. and 12lbs., according to strength and stature. The youth should at all events be able to toss the light ball up two or three feet, and catch it again in his hands. The heavy he should just be able to raise with ease, up and down, from his shoulder to his head. The weights being thus apportioned to your strength, you must throw accordingly. In casting the heavy ball, make no attempt to *swing* or *wind* the ball, but merely thrust it forwards from your shoulder, at an angle of 45°, throwing, at the same time, your whole united force, both of shoulder and body, into the task; and springing at the same instant from the ground, throw, as it were, the body after the ball, changing feet with the spring, the right foot now toeing the score, and the left, elevated, extended behind you. It must be recollected that the score *must on no account* be crossed, "*following the throw,*" as it is called, is contrary to rule. With the light ball, on the other hand, you attempt a sort of *wind* or *sweep*, in combination with the cast. The other movements are the same.

If, from necessity, stones be used instead of metallic balls, it is necessary, by poising them in the hand to discover the

centre of gravitation. In this case, too, it is a capital plan, when the position of the centre of gravity permits, to get the fingers of the right hand round the back of the stone, especially if it be a light one; if heavy, just act as with the heavy ball.

A 7lb. weight, if nothing better can be procured, makes an excellent light stone for boys, and the stone weight will answer for a heavy one: taking off the rings will make them more handy. More grown lads may aspire to the 28lbs. weight, but it is too heavy for pleasure or for long-continued use. In Ireland, exercises with the half hundred weight have long been in vogue; twenty-six feet is considered a great cast from the shoulder—twenty feet is not to be despised.

THROWING THE HAMMER.—A fine medium for exercising the muscles of the loins, shoulders, and back; indeed, of the entire frame. As in the case of the stone, there are a light and a heavy hammer;—the light hammer for men, is usually about ten pounds weight; the heavy, is a large forge forehammer. The light hammer should be so proportioned that it can be wielded and flourished round the head with ease; and the other, that it can be thrown, with one hand, about twice your own length; a man's light hammer, with a shorter handle of course, will be just the thing for you.

Both hammers are thrown in the same manner,—with the exception that the light one has a longer and a thinner handle, and is thrown by the right hand alone; the heavy hammer is thrown with both hands. The best description of wood for the handles is lancewood, or old, well-seasoned ash; and care should be taken that the head of the hammer be securely fastened to the handle, otherwise it may fly off, and perhaps fatal accidents be the consequence.

The hammer may be thrown either standing, or with the turn: *standing* implies that the hammer is simply hurled from your hands as far as your strength can cast it; the *turn* confers an astonishing degree of extra force upon him who is an adept in performing it correctly. To *turn*, the thrower

retires three of his paces, or rather more, behind the score from which he is to throw; he then grasps the hammer, if the light one, in his right hand, if the heavy one, with both hands,—the right hand griping highest on the handle, the left being close under it. The thrower then elevates the hammer towards the left side of his head, and swings it round him, in the direction of his legs, *turning*, at the same time, in unison with the motion; at the third swing, the thrower reaches the score, and the hammer is delivered, as nearly as possible, at an angle of 45°. The usual error consists not so much in throwing too high, as too low.

Two particulars may be here noted. In order to a successful cast, the impetus obtained from the swing and the turn, must be so managed as to be not only continuous, but progressive; being increased by each successive turn, until, at the third turn, it has reached its greatest degree of force: care should also be taken that the hammer be discharged from the hand with a *heave*, as it were, at the *precise instant* when it receives the united momenta of the three turns. Let it also be delivered from the hand in such a manner as that the head may be forward, and somewhat upward, in advance of the handle; by this means, the longest possible throw, which the amount of force applied is capable of producing, will be obtained. This may not at first appear very intelligible; but if the hammer be taken in hand, and these directions attempted to be put in practice, they will speedily be understood, and their truth appreciated. Such was our own experience; such the experience of our early companion and rival in the gymnasium, Willie Hay, of Edinburgh; and such the practice of the great Harper and his successor, Leyden, the redoubted champions of the Scottish border.

THROWING THE BAR, consists in casting a long and heavy bar of iron *the best way you can*, and as *far as you can*. Differences of opinion prevail as to the best method. Some are in favour of darting the bar in the same manner as a javelin. Others recommend it to be taken hold of like the

hammer, and swung round: our own opinion is decidedly in favour of the former mode. For this purpose, grasp the bar with the right hand, rather behind the centre of gravity; preserve the equilibrium by elevating the fore part of the bar—stand as in "putting:" deliver the bar at an angle of 45°, and contrive that it shall so fall, that the hinder end of it, that which is towards you, shall first strike the ground; by this means you will secure the longest possible throw. We confess that we do not like bar-throwing so much as the preceding games, and consequently shall not dilate upon it.

THROWING THE QUOIT.—This is distinct from quoit-playing, the object being not the attainment of any particular mark, but merely the casting the quoit as far as possible. This game is nearly identical with the ancient and classical one of throwing the discus,—the difference consisting in the discus having no central hole. The quoit used for this purpose is generally from eight to ten pounds in weight: it has, like other quoits, a circular hole in the middle, by which it is grasped. The *knack* consists in the following method:—Thrust all your fingers through the quoit, having the palm of your hand from you, and your thumb consequently outwards; stand with your left foot advanced, and, in casting, let the *outward rim* of the quoit be *first*. The quoit will right itself during its passage through the air, and the manner of delivering just described will not only ensure its sticking when it alights, but its performing the longest course the force applied was capable of producing. Let the necessity of casting at a proper angle be ever borne in mind,—throw neither too high nor too low; the angle of 45° degrees, or half of a right angle, is that which secures the greatest distance, forces applied being the same, to any projectile.

The above are the principal athletic exercises at present in vogue in England or Scotland. In Scotland, there are several annual meetings held in different districts, where public competition takes place and prizes (these chiefly being silver medals) are awarded to the victors. In our days,

the principal games were the Border, or St. Ronans, held at Innerleithen; the Roslin, and the Portobello. There was likewise a private club, called the "Holyrood Gymnastic Club,"—of which we had the honour of being president and captain for three successive years, from the time we were in our eighteenth till we attained our twenty-first year. The members of this club held an annual meeting in the King's Park, at the back of Holyrood House, Edinburgh. At these meetings it was no uncommon sight to witness the peer contending with the peasant—all was, for the time-being, on a footing of perfect equality. Umpires were appointed, from whose decision there was no appeal; and an excellent dinner, to which frequently upwards of two hundred persons sat down, usually crowned the festivities of the day. Time was, when these spirit-stirring scenes derived additional attraction from being presided over by two of the most eminent literary characters that Britain has ever produced—Sir Walter Scott, the Wizard of the North, and the still living wizard, who wields the destinies of Blackwood's Magazine—a man at once pre-eminent in moral and physical power—Professor Wilson. Yes; the physical infirmity under which Sir Walter laboured, precluded his taking any active part in the business of the border games; but not so the Professor; when the latter was between twenty-five and thirty years of age, he had no superiors, and but few rivals, in any of the exercises which we have described: few of the hardiest borderers cared to wrestle a fall with him, and in his long leap, or hop-step-and-jump, he left all competitors a full yard behind him. Alas! since those days, the palmy ones of border sports, these annual games have been gradually less fully attended; the interest formerly taken in them appears fast flagging, and it is more than probable that we shall soon have to speak of them as of things that were, and that have passed away.

SPORTS OF AGILITY.



AMONGST sports of this description may be enumerated WALKING, RUNNING, and LEAPING. It has been generally supposed, that the acquisition of a graceful and gentlemanly carriage, and, above all, a firm and assured manner of walking, was to be sought for only in the academies of the dancing-master or the drill-serjeant. Far be it from us to disparage the exertions, or detract from the utility of either of these gentlemen; but it is only due to ourselves, and to the subject with the elucidation of which we have been entrusted, to state it as our conviction, that the gymnasium will furnish the above qualifications in a far greater degree. The youth who has learned there the due and entire command of all his muscles, and the proper mode of applying them to any amount of exertion that may be required, however great or however small, cannot be ungraceful; and the knowledge that he possesses this command, cannot fail of inspiring self-possession, which is incompatible with awkwardness. It is from this that the natural dignity and grace so eminently characteristic of the American Indian springs. He

is a gentleman of Nature's own formation, at least as far as external manner and action are concerned. Let our youthful readers emulate him in physical attainments, and they cannot fail, if they at the same time apply themselves to the cultivation of their minds, to the study of those liberal sciences, to that study which

"Emollit mores, nec sinit esse feros,"—

of moving and carrying themselves as if their head, arms, legs, and bodies were their own actual property, and not accidental incumbrances with which they knew not well what to do.

To walk gracefully across, or along, a crowded room is perhaps one of the most arduous performances to the young aspirant after ease of manner. Yet it is not very difficult if he but analyse the powers, and possess a mastery over his movements. We recollect reading, or hearing this process so well defined, that we adopt the definition in preference to any suggestion of our own. The heel of the foot extended, touches the ground first, then the sole, just as the heel of the other foot begins to leave the ground, and last of all the pupil rises upon the ball of his toes; these three movements, performed in turn by both feet, constitute walking, and if any of our young readers should ever feel nervous on such an occasion as we have described, they will find a due attention to this analysis of their movements sufficient to ensure ease and self-possession.

Walking long distances, however, and walking across a room are two very different affairs. In walking for a long distance, it is best to incline the body somewhat forwards, so that the weight of the body is equally divided between the pelvis, the knees, and the instep, in proportion to their relative powers of endurance. Shoes with soles of moderate thickness should be worn; the dress should be light, and flannel should be worn next the body, in order to absorb the perspiration that otherwise would chill upon the surface of the skin. Man is capable of very long-continued exertion; fifty miles per day have been performed by some, for several weeks together

without distress; and the feat of walking 1,000 miles in so many successive hours, which, some years ago, so raised the pedestrian fame of Captain Barclay, has been now done frequently, and it is no longer what it was, a nine-days' wonder.

In RUNNING, the arms should be bent at the elbows, kept perfectly still, and the chest dilated and opposed to the wind. The legs should not be raised too high, nor should you take too long steps. For fast running, the best distance is 100 yards; 300 may next be tried, and after that, a quarter of a mile. A mile has been run in four minutes and a half,—*never* in less; a quarter of a mile has, however, been frequently done by first-rate runners in one minute, and some have even done the mile, in four heats of a quarter each, in four minutes, only one minute's breathing-time being allowed between each heat. Eight miles within the hour is very good running for a lad, and very fair even for a man; but ten have been repeatedly performed, and we have even heard of twelve.

LEAPING.—There are several descriptions of leaping,—the standing long leap, the running long leap, the standing hop, step and jump, the running hop, step and jump, the three standing leaps, the standing high leap, the running high leap, and the leap with the pole,—to which we may add also the vault, and the down leap. We shall describe these *seriatim*.

THE STANDING LONG LEAP.—Stand at score, with your arms extended behind you, and spring forwards, throwing out your feet well before you, and at the same time bringing your arms forward with them. This leap is useful, should you have to cross a small crevice in the rocks, when out on an excursion, or to take any other similar leap, where a run is not to be had; ten feet, *backwards and forwards*, *i.e.*, on ground perfectly *level*, is a fair leap for a man; eleven feet are, however, not unfrequently performed. We ourselves recollect having seen twelve done upon the Scottish border, and have *heard* of thirteen,—we do not, however, believe it.

THE RUNNING LONG LEAP.—General actions similar to

the preceding, but that you run to the spot whence you spring, gradually increasing your velocity until you leap; of course you rise from the ground on the right foot, but alight on both, with the knees somewhat bent, in order to avoid a shock. Eighteen feet is a very good leap for a youth of eighteen or nineteen; but if our young readers can manage to clear sixteen feet on a dead level, they need not be ashamed of their prowess. Twenty-one feet is about the standard of a first-rate leap, and in our opinion it is much more frequently spoken about than performed; *i.e.*, of course on a level, *backwards and forwards*.

Twenty-two feet were cleared at Innerleithen, by Professor Wilson. We have seen twenty-one feet nine inches done ourselves; twenty-three feet have been frequently vaguely spoken of as having been performed, but no one ever could be found to do it before witnesses. As Professor Wilson remarks, in an old number of his own Old Ebony, "twenty-three have been spoken of, but it was always as having been done in Ireland," or "by an Irishman," we forget which, just as if we now spoke of some of our American friends' extravagant Jonathanisms. As to twenty-seven feet and "flying Taylors," treat all such stories with contempt; on level ground the thing is physically impossible. Of course, on a fall of six inches in every yard, the leap would present quite a different aspect, and, if ever done at all, it was done with such a declivity. Three times the length of your body is a very good leap.

THE STANDING HOP, STEP AND JUMP.—Although thus designated, the most usual and the most effective mode of performing this exercise is—*two hops* and a leap. The first spring, indeed, is rather a leap than a hop, for the performer springs as in the running long leap, although he alights only on one foot; the second movement is a legitimate hop, and the last, made from the right foot, is a hop on springing, but partaking of the character of a leap, in consequence of the performer's alighting on both feet. The first and the last

springs are perhaps the most effective. Twenty-seven feet is a tolerable standing hop, step and jump; twenty-nine feet is good—it was in our youth our maximum; and thirty feet will not be often done fairly and on a dead level. Thirty-three feet, however, has been done by extraordinary leapers: we ourselves saw it performed by the celebrated Frank Harpur, at the Scottish border games. For my young readers, five times the length of their own bodies will be a first-rate leap, and four times and a half by no means unpromising.

THE RUNNING HOP, STEP AND JUMP—is precisely similar to the last described, but is preceded by a run of about twenty or thirty yards. The leaper should commence his run at a comparatively slow pace, gradually increasing it until, on springing, he has attained full speed. It is recorded that fifty feet were performed several years ago, upon the race-course at Newmarket. We have never witnessed such an exploit, but were present when sixteen yards, or forty-eight feet, were performed at the Scottish games by Mr. William Leyden, of Jedburgh: we frequently saw forty-seven feet performed by Frank Harpur. As for ourselves, when we were a lad of eighteen, which we are inclined to think is, to twenty, the age at which a youth can leap best, we thought ourselves very active to succeed in performing forty-three feet, but forty-two was our ordinary standard. Six times the length of your body is a middling leap, and you may rest perfectly satisfied if you exceed seven.

THREE STANDING LEAPS are performed precisely in the same manner as the standing hop, step and jump, with the exception that each of the three movements is a perfect leap. Thirty feet is a fair performance, but thirty-three are not unfrequently done. We have heard of thirty-four, and even of thirty-six feet having been done, but confess ourselves incredulous relative to the last-mentioned performance.

THE STANDING HIGH LEAP.—We had the honour of being the introducers, at the Scottish games, about thirteen years ago, of a mode of performing this leap greatly superior

to that ordinarily practised. All the printed directions relative to the due performance of this leap with which we have met, are anything but calculated to ensure excellence in practice. It were perhaps invidious to particularize, and it will therefore suffice to observe, that the usual directions were to stand facing the leap, and spring over it by gathering up the legs and bending the body forwards. As might be expected under this system, three feet and a half was thought a very fair leap, and four feet a first-rate one, while he who could clear four feet and a half in a single bound, without either *double spring* or run, was deemed little short of a prodigy.

The method which we introduced was as follows:—stand with the side, either left or right—but we adopted the former —almost touching the leaping-bar. Gather yourself well up, and spring into the air, at the same time throwing out your legs horizontally before you, and giving yourself a slight impulse towards the bar just sufficient to carry you over. In this manner we rather surprised our competitors by clearing with ease a height of four feet eight inches, and five feet were subsequently performed by a young friend who condescended to become our pupil, and who took such a fancy to our system, that he practised it diligently until he arrived at the high degree of perfection mentioned.

THE RUNNING HIGH LEAP has also hitherto failed of being correctly described, although, unlike the former exercise, it has been correctly practised by every first-rate leaper who has hitherto appeared. The best mode of performing the running high leap is not to run straight at the bar, but to commence your race, which should not exceed twelve or fifteen paces in length, from a point somewhat to one side of the leaping-bar. Then run at it in an airy, light, *tripping* manner; spring from the ground about two feet from the bar, and lance yourself obliquely over it If you were to leap straight forwards, you never could hope to clear such an elevation as you will, with comparative ease, by following our directions. Five feet is a very respectable leap for a youth of

eighteen or nineteen,—anything over five feet and a half is first-rate; six feet is spoken of, but not done by one first-rate leaper out of a hundred. The celebrated Ireland cleared six feet one, without the aid of a spring-board, and *fourteen feet* with that assistance. We have heard of that well-known sportsman, Mr. Osbaldeston, clearing five feet ten inches *over a turnpike gate;* but we know not upon what authority the report rests. The late Colonel Thornton, of sporting fame, could clear *his own height*—five feet nine inches: we have ourselves performed five feet seven inches. These heights are, however, seldom done, and we recollect having been victorious for three successive years at the Scottish games, on no occasion finding ourselves compelled to exceed the height of five feet four inches. As a guide to my young friends, I may mention, that, to clear the height of their throat is a very good leap,—that of the chin, a first-rate one; and he who will clear the height of his own eyebrows need fear few successful competitors.

Before quitting the subject of high leaping, it may be as well to caution my young readers against endangering their necks by trying their leaping powers over walls or gates. A leaping-stand is easily made, is portable, and completely precludes the possibility of any untoward accident. The stand is thus constructed:—get two pieces of deal, about one and a half inch in thickness every way; bore these with holes from the distance of two feet, from one end to the extremity of the other; the posts may be about six feet long, and the holes should be bored at the distance of one inch asunder. To the bottom of these two deal posts round pieces of heavy wood should be attached, in order to serve as feet: have two pegs made which will fit the holes, and project sufficiently to admit of a narrow lath being laid across them. Your leaping-bar is now complete, and you may fearlessly make essay of your agility, the slightest touch being sufficient to throw down the lath over which you are to endeavour to leap. Begin at a moderate height, and gradually raise the bar, one inch at a time.

You will be surprised yourself, as well as surprise others, by the height you will, by a little practice and perseverance, be eventually enabled to surmount. If you have sufficient materials, you might in the first instance make your leaping stand so high as eight feet; it would then serve, not only for the preceding exercises in high leaping, but also for the high leap with the pole yet to be described.

THE POLE.—Leaping with the pole is an exercise not merely extremely amusing and healthful, but calculated at times to prove of much practical utility. Ditches of a width that would defy any unartificially-aided human being to leap across them, will be bounded over with comparative ease by a lad possessing the aid of a pole. Canals, rivers, hedges, walls, in short, the most apparently insurmountable obstacles become as nought to the practised leaper with the pole.

The pole should be made of some well-seasoned tough wood,—old ash is about the very best, but hickhory and lancewood are also good. Some recommend *fir*, but that wood is too liable to split to be safe. Be very cautious in your selection of a pole, that it be free from all knots or flaws, and if it *crackle* under you in the leap, reject it at once: the breaking of a pole has, ere now, cost many a youth a broken limb.

The pole should be from once and a-half to twice your own height. It should be grasped with the right hand above the left, and the spring should be made at the precise moment when the pole is fixed in the ground. You should spring with the right foot, and so swing yourself across the ditch or other obstacle to be surmounted, that, on alighting, you face the point from whence you leaped. The same advice applies to both the high and the long leap with the pole, the principal difference between the two exercises consisting in the direction in which you spring or swing yourself. In high leaping with the pole, you may, with advantage, use a run of about ten paces. In performing this leap over the leaping-bar, you let go the pole as soon as you are over the bar; but

when using it as a matter of utility in an excursion across a country, you retain hold of it by the extremity, and, after a little practice, you will not find doing so as difficult as you might be led to imagine.

A first-rate leaper, with a fifteen foot pole, will cross a canal of from twenty-six to thirty feet in breadth, and five feet deep; and will leap a wall or hedge of from ten to twelve feet in height. In many parts of England countrymen may be seen following the hounds, provided with no other means of locomotion than his own sturdy and agile legs, and a stout twelve foot ashen pole, and in most instances they are able to keep well up, and to make a very respectable appearance in the field; for, whatever ground they might lose from lack of speed, they would, in anything like a stiff country, make up in their leaping powers: we have ourselves witnessed this in Ireland.

We now come to speak of two other descriptions of leaping, one of which is not, properly speaking, strictly a leap, and the other is of so dangerous a character that we only recommend its very cautious practice, in order that the reader may be prepared for any emergency that might occur when its adoption would become absolutely necessary; and yet, to the unskilful performer fraught with danger little less serious than that of loss of life, or, at the very least, rupture, or broken limbs. The former sport to which we allude is VAULTING: the latter —THE DEEP LEAP, or the leap from a height.

VAULTING consists of a complicated series of movements; the hands are placed upon the object to be surpassed; the vaulter springs from the ground, at the same time drawing himself upwards with his arms, until he brings his body up to such a height as to lean upon his hands, his body being nearly at right angles to the bar; the next movement is a lateral one, which gently swings his body over. One may vault either to the left or to the right side; we recommend the former, as in this method the principal agency is called for from the right arm, which, no matter what amount of

practice with the left has been employed in order to equalize its powers with those of the other hand and arm, will ever maintain its superiority.

You may commence by vaulting over one of the school-forms, then proceed to the height of your waistcoat, your breast, your neck, your mouth, eyes, and finally the top of your head. The vaulting-stand must be made somewhat on the principle of the leaping-bar, but, of course, of infinitely firmer structure, and the bar itself must be so contrived that it cannot possibly slip from its place. The falling of the vaulting-bar would probably occasion some very serious accident to the vaulter, while the steadiness of the leaping-bar would, on the other hand, be dangerous, in an equal ratio, to the leaper. A good vaulter will be able to vault his own height; a first-rate one, six feet six; and an extraordinary one will clear a foot higher: the vault may be performed either with or without a run.

THE DOWN LEAP.—This is a leap that should be practised with extreme caution. Its object is to descend in safety from a perpendicular height, a fall or leap from which would otherwise be productive of more or less injury. The best mode of practising the down leap is from a wall which gradually increases in height. Begin at little more than your own height, and increase the elevation from which you descend by slow and cautious degrees. In this description of leap, or rather *drop*, your object should be to divide the shock attendant upon it among as many of the joints of your frame as possible; the feet, knees, and hips should all participate, and the hands should reach the ground as nearly as possible at the same instant with the feet.

This leap is best managed backwards: let it be supposed that you desire to descend from a high wall, or ledge of rock; your first care should be to examine well the spot upon which you mean to alight, then lower yourself from the edge of the cliff or wall, until you are suspended by one hand; the right should perform this office, and the left hand should press

against the face of the wall about the height of your middle; the object of this is to give you a gentle impulse backwards, so as to avoid falling with your face against the stones; if you can find an interstice in which to place your left hand, so much the better; if not, you can nevertheless considerably break your fall,—first, by the backward impulse given to your person by the left hand, and a second impulse given by the right at a lower part, while in the act of falling. So greatly do such changes of *direction* contribute to break a fall, that instances have occurred of persons falling from a height of fifty feet or upwards, being perfectly uninjured in consequence of a *blow* received when in the act of falling, ere reaching the ground. This is a fact well known to rope-dancers and other persons, whose occupations cause them to be in constant danger of such an accident. On touching the ground, the faller should not endeavour to maintain his upright position, but abandon his limbs to the *bending* beneath the body natural to them under the circumstances, and even fall upon his back or face, his hands at the same time so far performing their part, as to prevent the face or head from being injured by too violent contact with the ground.

In all the preceding exercises, we recommend the use of a belt, or cincture round the abdomen, over the region of the navel, and extending some inches below it. This will brace up the abdominal muscles, produce additional firmness and vigour, and considerably diminish the danger of rupture. Such lads as are of a fat, heavy, bloated frame, should reduce themselves to a proper light and healthy condition, by gradual exercise and moderate eating, before they attempt any exertions of a violent nature.

CRICKET.



THIS is indeed a game of games, one of the greatest favourites alike of the schoolboy and the adult —one of the oldest, most generally known, and most *English* of English sports and pastimes.

It is probable that this noble game, like almost everything else, had its period of infancy, and that many a rolling century witnessed its progressive march of improvement: it is also no less probable, that at its birth it was little more, if not indeed the very same with it, than the well-known game of "cat," where one stick constitutes the wicket, another the bat, and a third and much shorter one, the ball. Certain it is, that, even of comparatively late years, improvements have been introduced. It is not more than eighty years since the wicket consisted but of two stumps, and a single cross-piece or bail: the ball then would not unfrequently pass between the stumps, and unless it actually knocked them down, the batsman was not out. Great alterations have also taken place in the form of the bat. In "The Laws of Cricket, revised at the Star and Garter, Pall Mall, London, on February 25, 1774, by a committee of noblemen and gentlemen," appears a figure of the bat then in use, convex on the back, and the front or

striking-place flat; it was also curved. The form of the bat at present in use is convex on the face and perfectly upright; we shall describe it more fully presently. With its change of forms and appliances, the game of cricket would likewise appear to have changed its name. Mr. Strutt, an excellent authority on such a subject, and a gentleman whose research would not be easily baffled, states, in his "Sports and Pastimes," that he has not been able to discover any record of this game, under the appellation of *Cricket*, "beyond the commencement of the last century, where it occurs in one of the songs published by D'Urfey." The first four lines of, "Of a noble race was Shenkin," runs thus:

"Her was the prettiest fellow
At football or at *cricket;*
At hunting chase, or nimble race,
How featly her could prick it."

Mr. Strutt seems of opinion, that the origin of Cricket is to be sought for in the ancient British pastime of Club Ball.

Whatever, however, may have been the origin or early history of this game, it is certain that it has long enjoyed universal patronage from the peasant to the peer, from the school-boy to the learned F.R.S. Nor need the most learned *savant* blush at being included in the category of cricket players, *i.e.*, unless he be a bad player; for in cricket not only does the body find exercise, but the mind also—a stupid, dull person will never make a cricketer. In order to show the degree of respectability which attaches to this sport, we may mention the names, as illustrious cricketers, of the sailor-monarch, his late Majesty, King William the Fourth, the founder of the Royal Clarence Cricket Club, at Hampton; the Dukes of Richmond, Dorset, and Hamilton; the Earl of Tankerville, Earl Verulam, Earl Winterton, with a numerous host of other noble names, to mention all of which would only occupy a space in our pages more legitimately required for matter of practical importance.

Perhaps the game of cricket never enjoyed, at any period,

the patronage and general favour at this present time awarded to it. It is not very long since it was almost altogether confined to the southern counties of England; especially those of Kent, Surrey, and Sussex. The celebrity of the "Men of Kent" is, indeed, of long standing and well established, and "Kent against all England" is even now no uncommon challenge. Latterly, however, other English counties are making rapid progress towards rivalling these, hitherto, monopolisers of batting and bowling fame: nor is this all; those abodes of learning, the British Universities, now possess well-organised cricket clubs, and can at any time send their quota of redoubted champions to the field. Our northern neighbours are also catching a portion of the enthusiasm; and even in Scotland, where, a few years ago, this noble game was almost wholly unknown, it is now making rapid advances, bidding fair, ere long, to eclipse the hitherto national game of golf. In Ireland a similar advance towards popularity is to be recognised, and the graceful bat has almost entirely superseded the once favourite but rude and boisterous game of hurling.

The usual match for a game at cricket is formed of twenty-two players, eleven upon each side; it may, however, be played by a less number, that being usually an uneven one. It is well, in commencing to play, that two umpires should be appointed, in order that disputes should be avoided. In a regular *match* a *referee* had also better be appointed to give his casting vote, in a case where the umpires cannot agree. The dress of the cricketer should be close fitting, and, at the same time, sufficiently loose to admit of free exertion. The jacket should be of flannel, in order to absorb perspiration, which otherwise, if allowed to lie and cool upon the surface of the body, would prove, not only disagreeable, but prejudicial to health. The head should be protected by a light cap; a hat is bad, both as being very apt to fall off, and as confining the heated air.

The apparatus necessary for playing this game are *bats*, *balls*, and *wickets*.

The BAT should be proportioned in length to the height of the player; many printed laws relative to its length have, from time to time, been laid down, but this is the only true criterion. We may, however, observe, that the usual length used by men, and by the best cricketers, is twenty-one inches, exclusive of the handle. Much care is requisite in the selection of a bat. By purchasing one formed of inferior timber, or presenting a false surface on the striking part, the result of unscientific manufacture, you will have the mortification, in the one case, of finding your bat smash in your hands, when perhaps in the very midst of an exciting contest; and in the other, you will find all your own practical skill and force rendered completely nugatory by the want of proper artistic skill having been expended on the instrument, the use of which is the necessary medium for their display. Perhaps the safest advice which we could give you would be, always to purchase at one of the well-known and established houses. This, however, not being in every case possible, a few practical directions to guide you in your selection may not be amiss.

As to the colour of your bat. Select a bat, having a striking face of a whitish or light saffron colour, and do not be led away by the apparent beauty of wavy markings, or lines; in fact, you should rather avoid such, for these markings, if existing in properly seasoned wood, denote the bat to be too heavy in proportion to its size for efficient use. Avoid *knots*, and look for these about the point where the handle and the "pod," as the bat itself is called, join. The great desideratum in a bat is a combination of power with lightness; this is effected by the skilful maker having the *fulness* in the proper place only; it is useless to have it where it is not required. The width of the blade, or pod, should be, for men, and a twenty-one inch bat, four inches and a half; it

will, of course, be necessarily proportioned to a shorter length. A full-sized bat should weigh about two pounds five ounces; for boys, about one pound three-quarters will be found sufficient: in fact, mere weight is by no means so essential as has been supposed, it being always subservient to the skill and judgment of the striker in taking the ball at the proper moment, and at the proper place. This is a fact only becoming generally known of comparatively late years; in the olden time, when the unwieldy, crooked, club-like bat was used, it was not unfrequently over *seven pounds* in weight. Such a bat would be utterly useless with the modern system of rapid bowling. Should you meet with a good bat, and take a liking to it, keep it; it is an acquisition doubly precious to the true cricketer. Should its handle snap, do not cast the blade aside on any account, but have a new handle let into it; this, from being made of *picked wood*, will, instead of deteriorating the value of your bat, render it even better than it originally was. Take care that the convex surface of your bat be precisely of the happy medium; a shade, either of too great or too little convexity, will render it worthless in your hands. The best makers are those who are themselves players.

THE BALL should be, as nearly as possible, a perfect sphere, of stony hardness, the welt well and closely stitched; and, for men, about five ounces in weight—for boys four ounces, are about the average.

THE WICKETS are three sticks, bound with brass at the top, in which are notches to receive the cross pieces or bails; they should stand twenty-seven inches clear of the ground, and the bails should be from seven to eight inches in length. The wickets are pitched opposite to each other; in a regular match the distance between them should be twenty-two yards. This is, however, too long a run for boys, who will usually find seventeen or eighteen yards sufficient.

The players occupy the respective offices of bowler, batsman, wicket-keeper, first-short-stop, point, middle-wicket,

leg or hip, long-stop, long-slip, player to cover middle-wicket and point, long-field-off-side, long-field-on-side.

THE POPPING-CREASE is a score drawn about three feet (in a match four feet) from the wicket, and exactly parallel to it. This mark confines the batsman; if, during play, he pass this boundary, the wicket-keeper, or any other player holding the ball, may put him out by knocking his wicket with it.

The bowling-crease is a score about three feet in length in a line with the wickets, and at right angles with it is another, called the return-crease; these confine the bowler. In delivering the ball he must have one foot before and the other behind this crease, otherwise it is *no ball*. When a false ball is delivered, the batsman may strike at it if he like, and if he obtain any advantage he has a right to it; while, at the same time, should he be bowled out, he can claim his privilege of its having been "no ball." The bowler must also be within the return-crease.

Now for a brief summary of the duties of the various functionaries whom we have mentioned.

I. THE BOWLER.—His duty is to deliver the ball, which he must perform in the position as relates to the creases already described, and in such a manner that it can be struck by the batsman; he has no right, for instance, to toss it over the batsman's head, or to bowl beyond his reach, or out of bounds; if he do so, it is no ball, the party in being further allowed one notch. Much depends upon the bowler, probably more than on the batsman, and many a game has been won by indifferent batsmen against players much superior, in consequence of their possessing an expert bowler. A bowler should endeavour to vary his style of bowling, or the batsmen will become accustomed to him, and his skill will be unproductive. The best mode of holding the ball is with the welt across in the hand, and a little practice will enable the bowler to give it such a turn with the wrist in delivering it, that it will take a course very different from that expected by the batsman. The old system of slow and straight bowl-

ing is now almost entirely exploded, being superseded by a rapid style of *round bowling* with *high delivery*. The young cricketer will learn to understand our meaning when he has somewhat progressed in the science of bowling, and will not fail to appreciate the new style. We quote the following from "The Sportsman's Magazine:"

"Mr. A. Mynn was one of the first who adopted the present style of round bowling with a high delivery, and which was scarcely heard of, and seldom practised, until 1827 or 1828, and even that was not formally acknowledged or sanctioned by the generality of country clubs. Its superiority over the old-fashioned underhand bowling is too evident to all who practise the game to need any comment here; and we will merely state one instance of its usefulness, viz., that when matches once required three, and even four days to play out, they are now easily disposed of in two, notwithstanding the somewhat tedious practice, to a looker on, of giving only four balls in an over. This saving of time is of greater importance than many might at first sight suppose. As far as the *poor* man is concerned, it prevents an excessive demand upon his time, and consequently his pocket, which he could ill afford; and with respect to gentlemen, however fond they may be of the pastime, it would in the former case not only have surfeited them of it, but would put a bar to other equally exciting and invigorating sports which in turn demand their attention. Let the admirers of underhand bowling say as they will, it is certain that the bat had, under its auspices, obtained an undue and prejudicial mastery over the ball, and some change was absolutely necessary to keep up the balance of interest between the two grand points of the game—batting and bowling; and as it is on all hands allowed that more science is required in the practice of *both*, under the modern system, it surely cannot be denied that the game has become a far more agreeable and intellectual one. As an instance of the comparative weakness of the old style of bowling, take the following score of the justly celebrated

Hambledon Club's first innings, when they played against all England, (June 18, 1777,) premising that the enormous numbers of runs were obtained against some of the best bowlers England could at that time produce:

HAMBLEDON.	First Innings.
Lord Tankerville, b. by Wood	3
Lear, ... b. by do.	7
Veck, ... b. by Lumpy	16
Small, ... c. by White	33
Francis, . . . c. by Wood	26
Nyren, . . . b. by Lumpy	37
Sueter, . . . b. by Wood	46
Taylor . . . c. by Bullen	32
Aburron, . . . c. by Minchin	22
Aylward, . . . b. by Bullen	167
Brett, not out	9
Byes	5
	403

"In 1815, also, the Epsom Club obtained 476 runs, in one innings, against the County of Middlesex, although the latter were allowed Robinson as a given player; and Mr. Ward, certainly the finest bat of his day, *scored* 278 *off his own bat in one innings*, when playing at Lord's against the County of Norfolk, with some given men. In 1817, at Lord's, a match was played by the Epsom Club against Sussex, when the score stood thus:—Sussex, 737; Epsom, 308; the grand total being 1045!

"We could, were it necessary to strengthen our argument, adduce many instances where Lord Frederick Beauclerk, Mr. Felix, Marsden, and many others, made enormous scores in consequence of the mastery they had obtained over the ball; and which, although showing the greatest merit on the part of the batter, did not afford equal pleasure or interest to the bowler; for even the batsmen, finding that they had

obtained the mastery, were comparatively uninterested in further triumphs."

II. THE BATSMAN.—He must stand before the popping-crease. He should avoid *running after the ball*, lest he get too far from his wicket to return in time to save it, should he obtain no run. Let him be perfectly cool, and not strike at the ball hurriedly or at random. His position should be, bent at the hips, legs straight, the left in advance; the right hand grasping the handle of the bat so that the palm is behind, and the thumb and fingers appear in front. The bat should not be grasped too tightly; indeed it should not be held tightly at all until about to strike or to stop the ball. Strike towards your left, and do not rise the ball, lest you be caught out. In running, be careful not to jostle against your opposite partner.

In striking, *the left elbow must be turned up*.

III. THE WICKET-KEEPER stoops behind the wicket; his duties consist in securing a missed ball, and knocking down the wicket.

IV. FIRST-SHORT-SLIP.—He stands near the wicket-keeper, to whom he acts as a sort of assistant, or substitute, should he be compelled to leave the wicket after the ball.

V. POINT.—He stands about seven yards from the batsman, whom he faces, and in the popping-crease, he supports the wicket-keeper and first-short-slip.

VI. MIDDLE-WICKET stands about twenty yards from the wicket, on the off-side; also a supplementary aid.

VII. LEG, OR HIP, stands behind the batsman, about sixteen yards back from the popping-crease.

VIII. LONG-STOP stands behind the wicket-keeper to save such balls as he may miss, or such as may have been only tipped by the bat. He should not be afraid of stopping a fast ball.

IX. LONG-SLIP stands in a line with the batsman, between point and short-slip, but farther out in the field.

X. PLAYER TO COVER MIDDLE-WICKET AND POINT stands on the off-side of the batsman; his duty is to stop such balls as may be missed by the functionaries whom he is appointed to cover.

XI. LONG-FIELD-OFF-SIDE, stands between middle-wicket and bowler, but far off in the field, to save the long balls.

XII. LONG-FIELD-ON-SIDE, stands on the side opposite, and also far in the field; his duties are similar to those of the last-mentioned player.

We have here enumerated the posts assigned to the different players in the full game of eleven on each side. When fewer are playing, some of the supplementary aids may be dispensed with; and should more be engaged in the game, the surplus may be distributed in various positions, at discretion. When four balls have been delivered, the umpire cries, "Over," and the whole party, save bowler and wicket-keeper, exchange their positions and offices. If the striker knock down his partner's wicket, when off his ground, it is nothing, unless it has been touched in passing, by some of the opposite party, in which case he is out.

The batsman may stop the ball with his body if he choose to do so, but he had better do so with his bat, reaching it forward as far as he can, and inclining it forward towards the bowler at an angle of about twenty-two degrees.

A lost ball counts four notches, but the players may continue to run until "Lost ball" be cried. It were unnecessary to give here a lengthened detail of the laws of cricket. We have furnished as much information as will aid our readers in acquiring a correct idea of the game, and the proper mode of playing it. By the time they have made sufficient progress to play formal matches, in which a strict adherence to law and rule is necessary, they will doubtless have outgrown our care, and will be referring rather to separate and more lengthened treatises devoted exclusively to the subject of cricket, than to these pages.

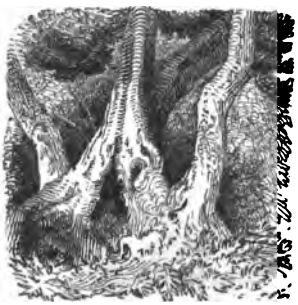
Cricket is sometimes played with a

SINGLE WICKET.—This game is very simple, and may be played with any number of persons over four a side. The only important difference between it and double wicket is, that in this game the run should be *only half the distance*, the bowler, however, maintaining the usual distance.

HURLING.—This was, until lately, the national game of Ireland. It was played by two parties with a ball three times as large as a cricket-ball, and heavy scimitar-shaped bats or hurls. Two goals were placed at opposite ends of a field, and the object of each party was to drive the ball between the goals or "calls" of the players on the opposite side. This was an uncouth and boisterous game, like "Bandy" on a large scale.



ARCHERY.



WE now arrive at probably the noblest, and unquestionably the most ancient and renowned of British Sports; a sport, too, that in the days of old was one of serious and important consideration, being not merely employed as a pastime in the palmy days of peace, but as one of the most serviceable appliances in war. The English archers then enjoyed the character of being the most skilful in Europe; and to their skill in the use of the bow many of the victories obtained by our ancestors are to be attributed. It may perhaps not be generally known to the majority of our youthful readers, that the term "Artillery," or "*Artillerie*," is of French origin, and signifies *Archery;* and the Artillery Company of London are but the remains of the ancient royal corps of bowmen.

To trace the history of Archery in England would be but to trace a history of her wars; to affix a date to its introduction would, probably, be but to affix a date to the arrival of the first inhabitants on the British shores. We have, however, reason to imagine, that, though the bow was known to the early Britons, and by them used as a weapon in the *chase*, it was not until after the Norman Conquest that they learned to

use it as an instrument of war. Certain it is, that distinct mention is made of the former in William's army, while none is made of any such troops having formed a portion of that of Harold's. Chroniclers are then silent on the subject of English archery until the latter end of the twelfth century, when Richard I. met his death from an arrow wound. The next mention of archery with which we meet, is about 150 years after this, when, in the fifteenth year of the reign of Edward III., we find an edict issued to the Sheriffs, ordering them to provide 500 bows and 500 sheaves of arrows, for the then projected war with France. The *bows* in this edict were specially named as *white;* a similar order was repeated in each of the following years, with the exception of the Sheriff of Gloucestershire being directed to provide 500 *painted* bows, besides the same number of *white*. About four years from Edward's first edict, was fought the ever-memorable battle of Cressy, in which we find 2000 archers in the English army.

In the fifth year of Edward IV.'s reign, we find an edict that every man in England should have a bow made of yew, witch hazel, or other serviceable tree; that butts should be erected in every township, and be shot at by the inhabitants on every feast-day, under penalty of a fine. Nor were the ladies of those times unskilled in the practice of archery. In a representation taken from a drawing in a manuscript of the fourteenth century, we find a lady who has just shot at, and wounded, a deer. We are told of Margaret, daughter of Henry VII., that a hunting party was formed for her diversion when on her way to Scotland, on which occasion she killed a buck with an arrow. In the reign of Henry VIII. several enactments were made for the promotion and encouragement of archery, and Queen Elizabeth is represented by Roger Ascham, as being habituated to the use of this weapon, in which he was very expert.

James I. established the Royal Company of Scottish Archers, probably one of the most ancient in the land. A silver arrow seems to have been annually shot for at

Musselburgh, so far back as 1603. In 1626 a silver arrow was granted for this purpose by the town of Peebles. In 1677 a piece of plate, value twenty pounds, was annually shot for by his Majesty's Company of Archers—it was called, "The King's Prize." In 1709 a silver arrow was granted for this purpose by the town of Edinburgh. So recently as 1754, butts were erected for competition in Finsbury-fields, in the neighbourhood of London; and in Scotland, in 1788, the annual meeting was revived, and the usual prize shot for. We recollect, also, competition in archery as having taken place within the last twelve years at the Scottish games.

It would, however, prove tedious, and, probably, uninteresting, to present anything like a detail of the history of archery; enough has perhaps been said to exhibit the antiquity of the sport, and the high degree of estimation in which it has been held; it will now probably better please our young friends to furnish them with some practical instructions, by due attention to which they may haply arrive at such a pitch of perfection, as to bid fair to emulate the most famous feats of any of the bowmen of the good old time, not even excepting the renowned Robin Hood, champion of Sherwood Forest, and his no less renowned esquire, the redoubted Little John.

The principal appliances used in archery are the bow, quiver, arrows, tassel, glove, brace-belt, and its appurtenances, butts, and targets.

Of BOWS there are two sorts: the ancient single-bow, and the modern improved *backed-bow*. We are now, of course, only treating of the *long-bow;* of the cross-bow we shall have a few observations to offer ere we part.

The *single* bow is made of a single piece of wood, which must, on this account, be of tough and enduring quality. The yew is the best beyond all question. The *backed-bow* is formed of two pieces—the body of elastic and even *brittle* wood, and on the back, a strip of elm, ash, or other tough material, which will keep the bow from snapping, rendering it at the same time much more powerful and efficacious. A

good backed-bow is a costly article, and should of course be carefully treated. It should, when you are done with it, be carefully covered with cloth, in order to protect it from the variableness of the atmosphere, and should also be kept in as equable a temperature as possible. Once or twice a year it should be well rubbed with linseed oil. As soon as you are done shooting, take care to unstring your bow, and on no account put it by in that condition. A bow should be as nearly as possible the height of the archer, and at its centre as thick as he can grasp it; the centre should be whipped with waxed thread, and the notches at each extremity, designed to receive the string, should be tipped with horn. If you desire a first-rate bow, apply to a first-rate bowyer; of whom several are to be met with in London, Edinburgh, and Dublin.

If you desire it, you can make a very good bow yourself. For this purpose, select a straight piece of wood—yew is the best; but, lacking that, a well-seasoned bit of lancewood will answer; take care that it be free from cracks or knots. You then fine down your wood towards each extremity, making one side of the bow convex, and the reverse flat—the latter is the outside, the former the inside, of the bow. At the extremities you must make notches for the string.

THE STRING is an important part of the young archer's equipment, for if it snap, the chances are that his bow will break, and probably the hand suffer at the same time. The string must therefore be purchased; if you cannot, however, procure bow-strings by purchase, your best substitute will be good whip-cord, whipped in the centre with fine silk, in order to present an even, circular surface to the notch in the arrow.

THE QUIVER.—This is the receptacle in which the arrows are kept for use, and transported from place to place. The quiver is of very ancient origin, and the materials of which it has been formed have varied with the age and nation in which it was used. Yours may be formed of leather, or of tin; but modern archers usually employ the quiver only as a

receptacle in which to keep their arrows at home, those arrows which they bring with them to the field being carried in the belt.

THE ARROWS.—These should be straight; heavier at the point than at the notched end, and tipped, at the latter extremity, with feathers. The arrow may be made of any description of sound wood. It should be proportioned in length and weight to the size and strength of the bow. The end that is designed to meet the string is notched, and the notch should be bound with horn.

THE TASSEL.—This may be formed of any convenient substance; its use is to cleanse the arrow from any dirt it may accidentally collect; it should be suspended on the left side of the archer. The usual substance of which the tassel is composed, is green worsted; it is suspended from the belt.

THE GLOVE.—This appliance is designed as a protection to the drawing fingers; it usually consists of stalls for the shooting fingers—a flat piece of leather, which lies in the inside of the hand, and thongs to attach it to the wrist. Dressed cow's leather is the best material for the shooting-glove, and should be dressed on the exterior.

THE BRACE.—This is worn as a protection to the bow-arm. It also, as old Roger Ascham says, serves other purposes, for it "saves the arrow from the stroke of the string when loosed upon it, and the coat from creasing; and the other, that the string, gliding sharply and quickly off the bracer, may make a sharper shot." This appliance is usually made of a piece of stout polished leather, formed something like a half coat-sleeve.

THE BELT AND ITS APPURTENANCES.—The belt is made of the same sort of leather as the brace. On the right side it is furnished with a pouch, into which the pointed ends of the arrows are laid, passing through a loop, which keeps them steady. The tassel is, as we have already described, slung upon the belt at the archer's left side. By the side of the tassel hangs the *grease-box*. The grease con-

tained in this should be a compound of suet and bees'-wax, in equal proportions. This grease is designed to keep the fingers of the shooting-glove in proper order; if they become dry they offer a great impediment to shooting well.

BUTTS AND TARGETS.—The former are usually of a pyramidal shape, stationary; formed sometimes of wood, sometimes of sods of turf, cut and heaped for the purpose. These have now given place to the target. This is made of worked straw, or bass, of circular form, covered with paper. In the centre is a mark, covered with gold-leaf, surrounded with circles of different colours, in order to test the comparative merits of the shooters. The value of these circles is usually thus computed:—

The outer white	1
The black	3
The inner white	5
The red	7
The gold	9

This is not, however, the *actual value*, as given by the actual space apportioned to each circle on the target. The actual value, or *merit*, would be thus estimated:—

The gold	9
The red	3
The inner white	2
The black	1½
The outer white	1

In order to save the time and trouble of going after the arrows, the archers shoot usually from two targets, placed opposite each other; one party shooting at a target, while the opposite mark the shots, and shoot back at the other target, when those who had just shot, mark in turn for them. The distance is, for ladies, sixty yards: for gentlemen, usually one hundred. A capital game can be played with bows and arrows, letting two parties shoot against each other, and observing the same regulations with those already laid down for quoits, taking care, at the same time, not to expose

yourselves to danger, by standing too near the target during shooting.

To string the bow.—Place the end of the bow, to which the string is already attached, against the inside of the left foot, holding the bow with the left hand, at the centre; with the right, *push* the loop upwards, from you, towards the other extremity of the bow, drawing your left hand towards you at the same time.

As to attitude.—You stand with your face and your left side towards the target, your left arm extended fully, and you draw, with the forefinger and middle finger of the right hand, to the ear, and *not to the breast*. Practice will not fail, if you take proper pains, of enabling you to acquire a proper attitude, and you should be careful to do so, as much—nay, your entire success as an archer will be found to depend upon.





THE CROSS-BOW. — This instrument is of very ancient date, and at one period formed one of the most important implements of warfare, under the name of arblaste (Fr. *Arbalète*). It is still a favourite implement of amusement, and is sometimes employed for the purpose of rook-shooting, when those birds have become too numerous, as, from the circumstance of its producing scarcely any noise, it alarms far less than a gun. The cross-bow, in its simplest form, consists of a stock of wood, fashioned like that of a gun, and with a groove on its upper surface for the reception of the missile to be fired. At the farthest end from the but is attached, crossways, a bow, formed of lancewood, yew, hickory, and sometimes steel. A notch is made in the stock at the distance to which the bow would probably be drawn; the string is pulled down and laid in this, and the bow is *set*. The missile to be projected is laid in the groove about an inch before the string, and when the latter is freed from the notch which confines it, it is driven with a force equal to the power of the bow. The principal advantage which the cross presents over the ordinary bow already described, consists in the greater facilities it affords of taking aim. You can easily contrive a trigger, of a curved bit of metal, let into a chamber cut for the purpose, through the stock, where the groove is, and so formed, that one portion will lie back *under the notch*, and another portion project

beneath, and that when the latter is drawn back with the finger, the former rises forward and lifts the string over the notch.

The steel cross-bow is usually fixed in a stock of Brazil wood, or mahogany, and firmly clasped with brass or iron. A lever is attached for the purpose of setting, as few men, if indeed any, could set it by their own unaided strength. The string of this description of bow is double, and at the centre are two cross-strings, with one again across them, to which a piece of leather is attached; this is called the *bed* of the string; a *bullet*, the usual missile, is placed in this, the lever drawn, and the bow set. The anterior end of the stock is furnished with two upright pieces of iron, across which is extended a thread on which moves a glass bead, and near the eye is an upright bit of iron pierced with three small holes, one above the other. The strings are formed of several delicately plaited fine strings of catgut. The force of this bow is truly astonishing. It is sufficient to drive a leaden bullet at the distance of twenty yards, *clean through* a half-inch board, and it will, at an elevation, send the same bullet upwards of 250 yards. We should say, however, that twenty yards is the greatest *point blank* distance that can be counted upon with any degree of certainty. This bow is a dangerous weapon, and one unsuited for very young boys.

We remember a description of cross-bow in use some fifteen or sixteen years ago, in Edinburgh, that struck us as being a very capital one. Instead of the groove being open above, it was covered in, the under-surface of the covering being also grooved to correspond with it, and the sides left free for the passage of the string from the notch to where the bow was attached,—here was a little close barrel, of about six inches in length. This contrivance caused the bow to shoot with greater accuracy than the ordinary uncovered cross-bow, and we have repeatedly seen birds knocked down at very fair distance. We think that any intelligent carpenter could

make one of these instruments from the above description; but if not, a communication to our publisher, inclosing the necessary postage stamps, will obtain from us such a drawing of the different parts as will render the matter plain and simple.



PLAYS AND SPORTS.



ITH many of these our young friends will be exceedingly amused; they at the same time are admirably calculated for promoting the circulation of the blood in cold weather.

HUNT THE HARE. — One boy goes off and conceals himself: this is the *hare*,—when a given time has elapsed, the others, who are the hounds, go in search of him, and when found, pursue him until taken. In the legitimate game no *crossing* is allowed, but the players are obliged to follow the hare in his direct course, as hounds do the actual hare, by scent.

"PRISONERS'-BASE," or "Prison-bar."—Two spots are marked opposite to, and in a line with, each other: opposite to each of these spots are marked two others, at a distance of from one to two hundred yards. These are the *prisons*, and the other spots the stations of the respective parties; each prison is fixed opposite to the station of the antagonistic party. The game is commenced by a player approaching the bounds of the opposite party, and calling upon one of them by name, who is in duty bound to sally forth and pursue his challenger. One of the challenger's party may now set forth in pursuit of the second person; another, from the opposite

side, after him, and so on: the object of him who challenged is now to get home to his party's station without being touched by his pursuer; and the object of every other player is to touch any opponent player who has set out *before* them. They cannot touch any who may have left bounds *after* them. Those touched are placed in the prison belonging to their captors, and whichever party first takes all its opponents prisoners wins the game. When a player has made his prisoner, he cannot be touched, but may return to bounds as leisurely as he pleases.

Either party may endeavour to release such prisoners as have been made by the other. For this purpose one of them starts off, and runs towards the prison; if he succeed in reaching it without being intercepted by a member of the adverse party, he may release any individual he chooses; and in this case both are exempt, and may return home at their leisure.

This game is sometimes played in Ireland under a somewhat modified form, and is called

"CATCH AND KEEP."—In this game each individual player has a station of his own, and takes thither whatever player he succeeds in touching, instead of placing him in prison. The player so taken then becomes identified with his interests, and aids him in accumulating prisoners. Whoever first takes all, wins the game.

"TIG."—A player volunteers to be "*Tig.*" He pursues the rest, and whoever is touched by him becomes "*Tig*" in turn. It is a capital game for cold weather, but inferior in point of excitement to

"CROSS-TIG."—This game is played exactly as the preceding, with the difference, that any player may compel "*Tig*" to pursue him by *crossing* between him and the player, of whom he is in pursuit at the time.

STAG, or WARNING.—This game is thus played. A player clasps his hands together, and retaining them in this position, stands against a wall or tree, and crying, "Warning once,

warning twice, warning three times over," rushes forth, and exerts himself to touch some person, which he must do without separating his hands. The party thus touched must carry the "stag" on his back, back to the goal whence he started. The new-made prisoner then joins with "stag," and they sally forth together; each successive prisoner is added to their line. A change now takes place: as each successive prisoner is taken, the line breaks, and the stags, instead of, as in the case of the first stag the commencer of the game, being carried home to bounds by their prisoners, must, if taken, serve the out-players as horses as far as the goal from which they started. This is an excellent game, and may be played by any number of boys.

LEAPFROG.—The ordinary leapfrog is played by one player standing in a stooping posture, with his hands resting on his knees, while another, running up behind him, places his hands upon his shoulders and vaults over his head, a leg passing on each side of it. This may be played by any number of boys, each going down as he arrives at the end of the line, and is very lively, as well as warming sport, the parties constantly moving onward, and thus combining the exercise of running and leaping.

"FLY-THE-GARTER," or "FOOT-AND-A-HALF."—This was a very favourite pastime in the West of England when we were a youth. It is thus practised:—A player places himself in a stooping posture, his arms folded, or placed upon his knees, with his head down, and his side towards a mark or score drawn along the ground. Another player then plants his hands upon his back and goes over him in the manner of leapfrog, with the difference, that in this game the party thus vaulted over presents his sides to the vaulter instead of his back, his head being towards that party's right. If any player stumble, or fail of going over, he takes the place of him who is first down, and the latter joins the other players; but if all go over in safety, the player who was down rises, as soon as the last has passed, and measures "one

foot-and-a-half," by planting one of his feet against the inside of the other placed at right angles to it, from the spot where he had just been standing; the players then go over him as before. Should all pass, the next player places the *down* player as he pleases, and, taking a single jump, goes over him: a hop and step are next taken, and afterwards, should no one meanwhile be down, a hop, step, and jump. But no new measurement is resorted to as long as one of the players volunteers to go over at an increased distance: whenever a player thus volunteers, he must place the down-player himself, and must be the first to go over; if he fail, he is of course *down*; if he go over, the others must endeavour to follow. This is a game which requires to be played with considerable caution, as otherwise both he who is down, and they who vault over him may be severely hurt. It is best played upon soft grass in a meadow, where a fall does not signify much, especially to a hardy school-boy.

FOLLOW THE LEADER.—One of the most enterprising boys in the school starts as leader, and those who follow must perform every feat which he performs; when any one is unable or unwilling to make some particular attempt, and the boy behind him be willing to do so, he must suffer him to pass, and so, those who perform taking in every instance precedence of those who do not. This is also a favourite game amongst sailors on ship-board.



GAMES WITH TOYS.

ROUNDERS.—This very amusing game is played in two different ways. One mode is with large and heavy bats, the handle of which is covered with waxed thread, and the reverse end terminates in a large curve flattened at both sides. A wicket of two stumps, but without cross-pieces, or bails, is set up, before which the player stands, and three stumps are placed in a triangle, equidistant from each other, before him: intermediate between the player and these stumps, stands the bowler, who bowls the ball at the stumps behind the player; if the latter succeed in striking the ball, he makes for the nearest stump to his right, touches it, and, if he have time, passes on to the next, and so on; but if the stumps be struck by the ball, the player is *out*, and another takes his hand. Should the player only succeed in reaching the nearest stump, another of his party takes the bat, and if he strikes the ball and obtains a *run* to the first stump, the former player runs on to the next, and so on, until the *rounds* are completed, and all get home. The same party then recommence proceedings, and so on. Meanwhile the adverse party have one employed in bowling, another couching behind the wicket, and the remainder dispersed in suitable situations, to stop, catch, and send home the stricken ball. If a ball be caught, the batsman is *out*, and stands aside until the game is over, or until all his side are out, when he is appointed to the duty of bowler, scout, or wicket-keeper, as may be determined. This mode of playing rounders bears some resemblance to a modification of single-wicket cricket.

The other mode of playing this game is of more easy attainment, and possibly, also, more lively and exciting. The three rounds are, in the first instance, duly marked with sticks, as in the former game; in front of them stands the batsman, at such a distance as to admit of a pecker or feeder, for there is no bowling, standing opposite, and betwixt him and the rounds. No attempt at a *wicket* is used in this game; the batsman holds in his hands a common battledore, or flat piece of deal, and when the feeder throws the ball towards him, he strikes it as far away as he can, and runs the rounds, until the ball, being thrown up, is in possession of one of the adverse party. In this game it is sought to strike, not the wicket, but the player, and if struck with the ball while absent from one of the rounders, or posts, he is *out*.

It sometimes occurs that all the players of a side are *out* save one. To this hero is afforded a chance of restoring his *side* to their game by what is called "*Taking the rounders*." The player must declare his intention. His object is to strike the ball to such a distance as to enable him to make the full circuit of the three posts, and return to his station without being struck. On this occasion, the opposite party are of course doubly vigilant, and the player is entitled to three services of the ball. If he refuses the third he is entitled to no more, he and his party are out, and the opposite side go in and take their places at the rounds.

In this and other games in which two sides or parties are opposed to each other, the usual mode of selection is this: —the two biggest boys undertake to head the parties, first choice is decided by chance,—wetting a bit of slate on one side and throwing it up, letting the other cry wet or dry, or tossing a coin, are the usual modes of deciding as to who shall have first choice; the winner selects a partisan, his opponent takes the next choice, and so on, until two bands are formed. The ball for rounders varies. In the first-described game it is usually a small cricket-ball — in the latter, any description of ball will answer, provided it be

sufficiently hard for flight. The distances between the posts vary from fifteen to twenty yards, according to the age and size of the players and to mutual agreement.

HURLEY, BANDY, HOCKY, SHINTY—are synonymous for one very capital game. The best place for playing it is a large but smooth field, not overburdened with grass. The game is as follows:—two long and upright poles are stuck into the ground in a conspicuous part of the field, and about two hundred yards from them, and as nearly opposite to them as possible, two other sticks are planted: each pair of posts are about six feet apart. Sides having been chosen as in rounders, one party of players select one pair of posts as their own, the opposite side take the others. The implements of the game are very simple, consisting of a ball, or, in its absence, the bung of a cask, and in each player's hand a stick, with a curved extremity.

All being ready, one of the party takes the ball, lays it on the ground in front of the post, or "*call*," as it is technically termed, of his party, and strikes it to as great a distance in the direction of the opposite "*call*" as he is able. The game has now commenced—the object of each party being to drive the ball or bung between the posts or stakes constituting their opponents' "*call*;" if the ball be driven *past* the call, instead of between, the party so striking it gain nothing, but on the contrary the game ceases, and a new one commences the proprietors of the call so passed having now the right of first stroke, precisely as if they had been victorious. This error of passing the call, confers, in short, a sort of tacit, negative victory on the party to whom it belongs, resembling "stale mate" at chess.

It is necessary to observe that each party should, in this game, keep to its own side. Those who strike downwards, and those who strike upwards, have no right, under any circumstances, to cross over; if they do so, the offending party is liable to a crack on the shins with the bandy, accompanied by the cry,—oh! how our hearts yearn back to the

days of happy youth at the recollection of "Shin your sides."

TIP CAT AND RUN is a sort of make-shift for cricket, and to single wicket it unquestionably bears no small resemblance. Two holes are made in the ground at the distance of about ten paces from each other: at one of these stands the player, with a short, stout stick in his right hand; opposite to him, and a little to one side, stands the pecker or feeder. The "*cat*" is a small bit of stick about eight inches in length, and the feeder tosses this to the player, who strikes at it with his stick; if he at all *tip* the *cat*, he must *run*: hence the name of the game. The *run* is made to the opposite hole, which is touched with the stick, and back again, when the stick must be struck into the hole whence he started: the opposite party meanwhile endeavours to get the cat into the hole before the *runner* can get his stick into it; if he succeed in doing so, the *runner* is *out*, and the two players change places. If the runner succeed in his *run*, he *scores*, and if he have struck the *cat* to a sufficient distance, he may probably be able to score two, three, four, or more—twenty-one is usually game. This game may be played with two sides, in which case there are two clubmen, who stand opposite each other, one at each of the holes. When a run is made, they exchange places, and, if they can, do so again and again, scoring as in cricket.

There is another mode of playing "*cat*" common in some parts of England, but far less interesting and amusing than that which we have just described. This consists in endeavouring to strike the *cat* out of a circle marked or scored upon the ground. The cat used in this game is thick in the middle, tapering towards both extremities. It is laid upon the ground, and the player, whose "*innings*" it is, standing within the circle, strikes it a smart blow on one extremity; this, if skilfully performed, causes the cat to spring upwards with a sort of rotatory motion, when the player strikes at it with his stick; if he succeed in driving it

beyond the precincts of his circle, he "calls;" if he fail of doing so he is *out*, and his opponent takes his place. The meaning of the expression "he calls," is, that, having driven the cat beyond the circle, the striker, measuring the distance with his eye as well and as accurately as he can, cries the number of lengths of his stick at which he supposes it to lie from the centre of the circle in which he stands; this number to be scored to his game: if the number which he calls exceed the actual distance he is out—if not, he scores to that amount. It will therefore be seen that the surest game is to call a number which you are perfectly sure must be inferior to the actual distance. It were to be desired that, wherever an opportunity presented itself to extract a moral, even from a game at play, it should be done: in this instance we would beg to remind our young friends of the advantages of moderation, and the danger of covetousness and ambition. By attending to the dictates of the former, you will be likely to play with safety and success, not merely the game of "*cat*," but that of Life; while, if you suffer yourself to be led away by the glowing prospects of the latter, you *may*, it it is true, succeed; but you run a fearful risk, and stake all—everything, upon the hazard of a die.

FOOT-BALL.—The ball is made of a blown bladder, cased in leather, formed of a portion of the offal of the slaughter-house, which can be readily obtained from any butcher. The bladder is not blown until after it has been placed in the case, the orifice of which is duly furnished with leathern thongs, with which to close it.

In this game, as in bandy, sides are chosen, and "calls" set up: the ball is thrown off, and the object of each party is to drive it through the "call" of their opponents. The consequences of a *bye* are the same as in the case of bandy. Sometimes, instead of "calls," lines are drawn, forming the goals, and the simple driving of the ball across these constitutes victory.

In cold, dry weather there are few better games than foot-

ball; and in our younger days we recollect it to have been a favourite with English school-boys.

HAND-BALL, OR FIVES.—This game is played with a small and hard ball against a wall. The wall should be from fifteen to twenty feet high at the very least, and the ground in front of it should be level, dry, and hard, but free from gravel or small stones. Some public schools have a regular ball-court fitted up in the play-ground; when such is the case, the court is usually flagged, and the top of the wall is protected by a piece of netting, in order to prevent the ball from being driven over it and lost.

Along the lower part of the wall, and at the height of about two feet from the ground, a broad line is drawn; no ball struck below this line is counted as put up. At a distance of about ten feet from the wall, a line should be drawn upon the ground in regular courts; a little trench marks this spot: this is called the short line, and the out-player is not obliged to take or strike at any ball which he who has the innings does not deliver, at least, beyond this. At a distance of about three feet from the centre of the wall is placed a flat stone, or flag, or the ground for about a foot square at this part is tramped particularly hard and firm.

Fives may be played either between two persons or with partners, two or more being on each side. When it has been decided upon who shall have first innings, that party approaches the wall, ball in hand. The other party stands off at some distance beyond the *short line*. He who has the innings then calls out "Play," and, hopping, or "dapping" the ball upon the flag or hard spot, strikes it with his hand against the wall above the line already mentioned, so that it shall rebound beyond the short line. It is the business of the other player to strike the ball back again against the wall; he may do this, if he choose, by striking the ball as it flies; but this is very bad play: the proper method is to wait until the ball hops from the ground. If the out-player fail of returning the ball, the other scores 1; but if he succeed in doing so, it

is then the business of the other, in his turn, to strike it up again as it again rebounds; the other player strikes in turn, and so on. If the out-player miss returning the ball, the other scores; if the in-player suffer it to be put up without being able to return it, he is *out*, and his opponent takes the innings. If either of the players be struck by the ball, so as to prevent its being put up, it is called a "*let*," goes for nothing, and the in-player resumes his innings as if the play were only commencing. A ball may not be taken at the second hop. After the first put-in, it is no matter whether or not the ball be delivered over the short line, but it must always strike the *wall* above the line scored along it.

Much might be written in reference to the niceties of this game, and the best modes of playing it with success; but we know from experience that an hour's practice will do more than a month's precept. One or two words of advice may however prove serviceable.

In order to lessen the probabilities of your adversary's being able to put up the ball in his turn, you must endeavour to deceive him as to whereabouts it is likely to fall after you have delivered it against the wall. For this purpose it is a good plan to drive it against any corners or inequalities which may exist. But one of the very best pieces of tactics is to drive the ball up, with apparently irresistible force, while, all the time, you send it in so gently that it scarcely touches the wall, and falls dead at its foot; your opponent having been, from the apparent force you seemed to exert in the stroke, running out, expecting an unusually long ball, will be unable to get in in time to save the score. On the other hand, you may, while apparently merely putting up the ball, strike it with such force as to cause it to rebound far over your opponent's head. In these tactics you must be governed by your opponent's position; if he be close in, drive the ball out, and *vice versâ*. As we have already stated, however, very considerable practice is necessary in order to the attainment of excellence in ball playing. We have only been able to

exhibit, as it were, its *rationale;* we must leave the rest to the patience and perseverance of our young readers.

QUOITS.—A very different sport indeed from the ancient casting of the "*Discus.*" The quoit is a round piece of iron, convex on one side, and flat upon the other, with a circular hole in the centre equal to about one-third of its diameter. The quoit for men should weigh 4lbs. at least; for youths, 2lbs., or at the very most 3lbs. weight will be sufficient. Quoits may be played by two players, by four, or by six. More might play, but it would make the match tedious; and even when six desire to play, it is better to divide into two parties, one of four, the other of two. Quoits are thus played by two persons:—two iron pins are stuck into the ground at the distance of fifteen, eighteen, or twenty-five yards from each other: the object of each player is to throw the quoits as close to this ring as he can, and, if possible, to cause the central hole of the quoit to pass over and remain fixed upon it; this is called ringing the quoit: the players throw alternately from the same pin, and then walking down to lift their quoits, throw in the same manner, back again: the nearest, of course, scores. One is scored for *each quoit in,* or for each quoit which is *nearer than all the quoits of the opposite player.* When four play, the parties are relieved from the necessity of changing their ground, two throwing one way, or *up,* and the other two the other way, or down: on such occasions it need scarcely be added, that two opponents are pitted against each other at each pin. The same applies to a game of six, but, as we have already observed, the best party is that composed of four.

Quoits have been sneered at by some writers on "manly sports." In our opinion they are an excellent game, and well entitled to take their place with other out-door amusements.

TOPS.—These tops furnish an amusing variety when you are wearied with more active sports. Tops are of three kinds,—peg, whip, and humming-top. The peg-top furnishes by

far the best sport of the three, and we shall accordingly leave our description of it to the last. The whip-top is too well known to require description, and it is probably unnecessary to inform our young readers that eel-skin is the best material for lashes. *Races* and *encounters* are the only games to which this sort of top can be adapted; and youths, after passing their twelfth year, usually tire of it, still, however, continuing to patronize the peg-top. The humming-top requires only mentioning; it is a toy for the very young, and has, in all likelihood, long ceased to be found among the "properties" of such young gentlemen as are now perusing our pages.

The PEG-TOP is too well known to require any description of its appearance, while, at the same time, we are of opinion that a hint or two as to the best form of this top may not be superfluous. The peg-top should be formed of box, and should be of small size, the diameter of the upper part not being quite two inches; it should taper rather abruptly than gradually, and the circumference should be marked with ribs, to retain the lash or string, by means of which it is spun. The most ordinary defect in peg-tops is the coarseness of the peg or spike, and the clumsy manner in which it is attached to the top. This is particularly remarkable with reference to the Scottish tops. In England the turners display more taste, but Dublin continues to bear the bell. In Edinburgh the price of a top is only 1½*d.* or 2*d.*—a good top cannot be made for this. In London and other large English towns, the price varies from 4*d.* to 8*d.*: in Dublin 6*d.* is the standard. The peg or spike should taper *uniformly with the top itself*. The point where the two articles join should be almost imperceptible. This is effected by the peg being formed of a shank and spike, the former fitting accurately into the top at the lower extremity.

Care must be taken that the peg be perfectly straight; if it incline, the balance, and, of course, the spinning of the top will be effected. The spike is always made of good steel,

and is worth from 1*d.* to 2*d.*; it should be about three-quarters of an inch in length, exclusive of the shank.

Several games are played with this top; amongst the principal are "Ring," and "Gloss." In the former game, a circle, about a yard in diameter, is drawn upon the ground: this is best effected by attaching a piece of stick to a line; one party makes this line fast in the spot intended for the centre of the required circle, and the other, taking the stick and keeping the string constantly on the stretch, draws it on the ground, until a perfect circle is formed. A bit of china, or a small coin, is then placed upon the ground, at which, as at a mark, all the players peg their tops: he who pegs farthest from the mark, or he whose top fails of spinning, is *down*. If two tops fail, they are both down, and the same if more than two fail; and these must again peg at the mark, in order to determine who shall be eventually *down*. The best and surest way of calculating your distance is measuring the length of your string from the mark at which you peg. He who is *down* then pegs his top within the beforementioned circle, and while it continues spinning, the others are at liberty to peg their tops at it. The instant it rolls out of the ring it may be taken up, and if you be quick enough, you may have a peg at those still spinning within the ring. Whatever tops do not roll out of the circle are called *dead*, and are set in the middle of the ring, or left where they lie, this is usually arranged by preliminary agreement, for the others to peg at: should any top be pegged out, its owner is again free to resume his play. A top is sometimes split by a peg, and when this happens the spike becomes the property of the victor. If a top be made of good box it is rarely split in this game, but those formed of inferior wood stand a very poor chance, as, even if not split, a stroke will so splinter them as to render them useless.

"Gloss," sometimes called "Mug," is played differently in different countries. The players are only two in number. In Ireland it used to be a special favourite. One mode of

playing this game is thus: a bit of delf is, as in the former game, set upon the ground and pegged at by the players. He who pegs farthest from the mark must then spin first, and his opponent has the right of pegging at his top; should he strike it, the owner of the stricken top may spin at his, and so on. This is, however, not the true game. In the true game a hole is made in the ground, about fifty feet from the spot where the pegging commences: the mark is pegged at as before, but he who is farthest from hitting it must set his top upon the ground, spike upwards, and the other player may then peg at it, and while his top continues to spin, take it on the palm of his hand, and taking the spike of the other top between two of the fingers of the same hand, convey it as far as he can towards the gloss-hole; the instant that his own top ceases spinning he must drop his opponent's—the latter then pegs at the top of the former, and in like manner conveys it as far as he can towards the hole; but this time he must get up his adversary's top as best he can, that party not now being compelled to place his top in such a position as to facilitate its conveyance. Whoever succeeds in first getting the top of his opponent into the gloss-hole, may demand the penalty previously agreed upon. This is sometimes only the placing of the "glossed" top with the spike sunk in the ground, while the winner takes a certain number of pegs at it, generally three,—and this is unquestionably the only legitimate game. In some places, "hand-pegs," and in others "stone-pegs," are played for; but these are purely mischievous, and destitute of fun or skill; the former consisting in setting the conquered top in the ground, as already described, and then striking it forcibly with the spike of his own top, held for that purpose in the hand: this is bad enough, but "stone-pegs" are still worse; consisting in absolutely inserting the spike of the winning top into the crown of the other, and striking it forcibly with a heavy stone—inglorious mischief is the obvious result. We trust that our readers will not only see no *fun* in this

wanton destruction, but that they will see it in its true character of wanton wastefulness. A top legitimately split is like a brave soldier killed in fair fight—the hand-peg and stone-peg are as if the same soldier were tied to a tree and fired at in cold blood. There is some chivalry even in pegging tops, nay, in all boys' minor sports, and if there be not, some fault must exist. Much of the character of boys may be learned by a half-hour's observation in the play-ground; there nature exhibits herself without disguise. Nor are boys' characters of such trifling importance—"The boy is the father of the man."

MARBLES.—The best description of marbles are formed of stone—clay ones are inadmissible in aristocratic play-grounds. The white marbles, commonly called "marble-marbles," are usually used as *taws*. Variegated marbles, or "China alleys," are not now thought anything of—they are left to children.

The most simple game at marbles is "follow my taw." This is played by two: one shoots his marble, the other shoots at this, then the other, and so on; when a taw is struck, a marble is paid to the striker, who shoots off, and the game recommences as before.

THREE-HOLE-SPAN.—Three shallow, conical holes are formed in the ground, at the distance of about four feet apart, and a taw-line is scored about six feet from the first hole. The object of the players is to get first *up* the three holes, then down again, and finally up again; the third hole is, on this second occasion, the winning hole. Each hole must be got *in succession*, and when a hole is got, the player is permitted to *span* from the margin of the hole for his next shot. After getting into a hole, the player may, if he please, shoot at his opponent's taw, and, if he hit it, have another shot, besides receiving one marble as a fine. In some counties of England, the object for which this game is played is about as little to be commended as the "stone-pegging" in "gloss," already alluded to; it consisting of the loser suffering three shots on the knuckles from the winner's marble. This is a

senseless penalty; it does not, in any degree, benefit the winner, and it is only calculated to inflict unnecessary pain upon the loser. The true game consists in the payment of three marbles, one for each hole, by the loser to the winner.

RING.—These two games, played with a ring, or circle, one called small ring, or ring-taw, and the other, large ring, or pound. The mode of playing the former game is as follows: a circle of about one foot in diameter is drawn upon the ground, and in this each player deposits a certain number of marbles, called "shots." The number deposited varies with the number of players, as it is not advisable to crowd the ring, but *two* is the average number. At the distance of about six feet from the ring is drawn a score, or taw-line, from which the players shoot in the first instance. The order of shooting is determined by all the players endeavouring, from the taw-line, to shoot as nearly as they can to the ring, he whose taw is closest to any part of its circumference shoots first, and the others follow in similar order. Every "shot" struck out of the ring is taken up by the striker who, after striking, can go on again. If a taw get within the ring and remain there, it is "fat;" and its owner is not only out of the game, but must deposit within the ring any "shots" that he may previously have knocked out of it. If one player strike with his taw the taw of another, the latter is also *out*, and must surrender to the striker any marbles which he may have previously struck out from the ring, or won by a similar stroke from another player's taw; but if no shots have been previously struck out, he is not *dead*, but only returns to line. If a player's taw and the ring appear to present about equal advantages to the shooter, or if they are so placed, relatively to each other, that the shooter, firing at one, might accidentally strike the other, he may be required to declare at which he will aim—"Slap *or* taw," and if he hit that which he did not declare for, his shot passes for nothing, and the marbles are restored to their places; a

player about to shoot may avoid the necessity of making the declaration, by crying, before such a demand is made, "Slap *and* taw," or "Everything."

In some parts of England, a game is still played, called "Conqueror;" it consists in one player placing his marble on a soft spot of ground, and the other throwing his taw at it with all his force, in order to break it if possible. This is a game which we are not at all disposed to recommend, considering as equally objectionable with the "stone-peg." It requires no skill, the success depending not on any expertness of either player, but purely on the comparative quality of the respective taws. In Scotland, this game was, some years ago, and we believe still is, a most unaccountably great favourite; it is there called "Bull;" and the taws with which it is played formed of a very hard kind of well-baked earthenware.

POUND, or Large Ring, is played with a ring or circle described on the ground, about six feet in diameter; in the centre of this each player places a certain number of "shots," at which each shoots from any part of the circumference of the circle he pleases. In this game a player may, if he please, suffer his taw to remain within the ring without being *fat*, but he runs the risk of being struck out of it by some of the other players, in which case he is "*dead*," and out of the game, besides having to surrender whatever shots, if any, he may have previously obtained. All shots must be struck completely out of the ring, otherwise they do not become the property of the striker, nor does he obtain another shot merely from the circumstance of having struck them. If a player in shooting the first marble or marbles outside the ring, contrive that his own taw shall remain within it, he may actually clear the ring, and obtain every marble before any other can get so much as a shot. As in ring-taw, no taw is *killed* unless a shot have been driven out prior to its being struck. In some counties this game is played with the previous understanding,

that no taw can remain within the ring after any marbles having been driven out, without being *dead* and its owner out of the game; this does not apply to him who strikes a marble or marbles out of the ring at the same shot which causes his taw to remain within it.

There are several other games with marbles, but they are far inferior in interest to those which we have described, and are also more adapted for in-door sports, as a resource in case of a wet day, than for the exhilirating out-door recreation of the play-ground. There are the "Arch-board" and "Pyramid." The ARCH-BOARD is simply a board with ten arches, over each of which is a number placed, 0, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, at equal distances; this board is "kept" by one player who acts the part of "banker," charging so much in marbles for each shot at his board, and paying in his turn the number of marbles indicated by the number marked upon the arch entered by the player's taw. The numbers are sometimes arranged with a number of cyphers interspereed between them, as thus:—0, 9, 8, 0, 0, 7, 0, 6, 5, 0, 4, 0, 3, 2, 0, 1.

THE PYRAMID is thus played. A player sits upon the ground, and extending his legs, forms between them a pyramid composed of three marbles placed closely together, with a fourth upon the top of them; round this pyramid is described with chalk a circle of about nine inches in diameter. Each player who desires to shoot at the pyramid, pays a marble to the pyramid-keeper, and shoots from a line drawn with chalk, at a distance previously agreed upon. Whatever marbles are knocked without the circle belong to the shooter; an additional marble of course paid for every shot.

We have never seen marbles played with so much fairness and skill in any part of the United Kingdom as in England. In both Scotland and Ireland the habit of moving the shooting-hand forward towards the object shot at, at the moment of discharging the taw, prevails to a great extent. This is destructive of true skill, and our young friends should always insist upon the abandonment of the practice. It is more

entitled to the appellation of *throwing* than to that of *shooting*. The fair method of shooting is to hold the hand perfectly still, not to move it forward so much as an inch, and to depend for success on correctness of eye and steadiness of hand. Such was the custom in our time, and we were by no means a despicable shot.

HOOPS.—We know not how far some of our senior-juvenile readers may be satisfied with our introducing to their notice a pastime which they may deem suited only to their little brothers. Let us assure them, however, that on a cold frosty day, when the ground is too hard for leaping; the cold too severe to admit of handling stones or hammers; and when such *still* sports as tops or marbles are out of the question, that a good game at hoops is by no means to be sneered at. There are two capital games which you can make with hoops,—*races*, and *encounters*,—the former is of course a trial of speed; the latter consists in bowling your hoop against that of an opponent, each endeavouring to overthrow the hoop of the other. You may thus practically emulate the classic feats of which you have, perhaps, employed your school hours in reading. You may, if you please, imagine yourselves combatants in the Olympian games: you may elevate in imagination the character of your pastime, if you deem it necessary thus to stifle any remaining qualms of pride which might lead you to blush at its adoption. *Blush*, indeed, you will, but the colour which mantles on your cheek will be the glow of health, the result of accelerated circulation, far preferable, in our opinion, to the pallid stagnation characterizing the cheek and hands of the shivering martyr to foolish pride, who was above trundling the hoop in order to warm himself.

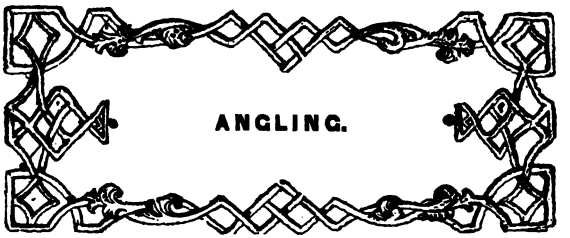
KITES.—In Scotland called "*Dragons*." You all know what a kite is, but you probably do not all know how to make one for yourselves. Get a straight lath, about one inch in breadth, and half an inch in thickness, about three feet three inches in length. This is called the *standard*. Get a piece of pliant

wood, as ash or hazel, which must be of equal thickness and weight throughout its entire extent, and must also be of the same length as the *standard*. This is called the *bender*. Find the centre of the bender, and attach it at that point to the standard, within three inches of the superior extremity of the latter. Then make a *nick* on the edge of the upper end of the standard, and two nicks on the bender at each of the standard, and about two inches and a half from the point of junction; attach a piece of twine to one of these notches on the bender, bring it firmly over the nick in the top of the standard, and then fasten it to the corresponding nick in the bender, on the opposite side. Next make a notch at each end of the bender, and another at the lower extremity of the standard, and unite these with a piece of twine drawn just so tightly as to form the bender into a bow. You will add to the strength of your work if you also unite the two ends of the bender by a string which, in crossing the middle of the standard, is lapped twice round it: You have now formed the skeleton of your kite.

This skeleton is next covered, carefully and neatly, with paper, the paper being attached by means of its edges being lapped over the string and bender, and fastened with paste; as also two or three slips of paper pasted across the standard at the back. You next bore two holes in your standard with an awl, but be careful lest you split the wood, one about seven inches from the top, and the other about four inches from the bottom: pass a string through these holes, and adjust it with due regard to balance, &c., for your belly-band. To this is attached the string by which the kite is flown. At the bottom part of the standard another hole is pierced; to this the *tail* is attached: the tail should be about ten times the length of the kite; it is formed sometimes of paper, but more generally of straw, rolled up in little bundles, and cut with shears, all of one length. This sort of tail looks far better than that made of paper. If the kite display difficulty in rising, her tail is probably too heavy; if she dips and plunges,

it is a sign of its being too light. You may make a kite of either much smaller or much larger size. We recollect making some so small that half a sheet of thin silk paper formed their covering, and a cotton ball flew them! We also recollect a monster kite, formed by the united subscriptions of the entire school, which considerably exceeded six feet in height. We do not recollect its exact height, but remember that it was higher than our excellent preceptor with his hat upon his head, and he was a tall man. This kite was covered with stout calico, and flown with strong line, such as clothes are dried upon,—two of the strongest lads in the school were unable to hold this kite, and after the united efforts of four or five had succeeded in flying it, the rope which held it had to be given a turn round one of the poplar trees in the lawn, which we used as a play-ground. We once sent up a lantern, attached to the tail of this kite, on a dark night, and we can assure our readers that the effect was most extraordinary, and produced considerable excitement, not altogether unmixed with consternation in the minds of such of the country-people as witnessed the novel, dancing meteor, without being acquainted with its real character.





THIS sport has long been known as "The *gentle* art,"—why, we are at a loss to discover, for although we do not agree with those who decry fishing as cruel and barbarous, we yet cannot for the life of us discover anything peculiarly *gentle* in the impalement of a grub or worm, or even in deluding a poor fish into the belief that you are furnishing him with a dinner, while your sole object is to thrust a barbed hook through his lips, and haul him out of his native element to perish in another. Man has, however, an undoubted right to fish, and did we conceive the contrary, we would be the last person in the world to advocate the cause of the craft, or to indite these pages for the behoof of our right-worshipful young masters. We say that man possesses an undoubted right to fish; we will go still further, and are ready to maintain that fishing is not cruel. The poetical statement so often quoted, that the trampled worm

> "In corporal sufferance feels a pang as great
> As when a giant dies,"

is strictly *poetical*, and cannot for a moment be established on the principles of natural science. Sensation is twofold,—it depends upon organization and upon mind. If we admit that the worm suffers as much as man, we must admit his

organization to be the same, and also accord to him the possession of a *mind*. But if we truly wish to ascertain the amount of pain he is capable of suffering, we have only to institute a comparison of his organization with that of man, and also to take into account the absence of *mind*. The worm is one of the very lowest animals in nature's scale, and his sensations must exist in the same minimum degree. We are not even certain that the worm feels *pain at all*, or that his struggles when placed upon the hook have their origin in aught but a desire to escape, for the creature will struggle just as much if confined by a string. As to the fish themselves, we also do not think that they suffer;—their lips are *leathery* and not formed for sensation, and the humane fisher will always break the neck on taking, so as to avoid even the possibility of being unnecessarily cruel. Sickly, and often affected *sentimentality* is not synonymous with *humanity*. In order, however, that our young readers may judge how far the fish suffers or feels, let them read the following anecdote; the writer vouches for its truth:—A gentleman struck and slightly hooked a trout, but lost it; in a few minutes more he succeeded in hooking and landing a fine fish, which to his surprise had only *one eye*. On taking the hook from its mouth, what was the angler's astonishment to find the missing eye upon the barb! the greedy fish had been the same previously struck. It had been caught by and lost its eye; but, within the space of a few minutes had returned to the charge, and been actually taken with its own eye! What amount of feeling did this fish possess? It is, however, unnecessary that we should enter into a more protracted defence of angling. The Creator appointed man lord of the creation, and gave him the lower animals to slay and eat. Fish eat one another, and we eat fish; and a right good thing too is a dish of trout. So let our young friends fish with a safe conscience, and take with them our good wishes for their success.

The practice of angling is one of great antiquity, and is evidently alluded to when the inspired writer speaks of taking

Behemoth with a cord, and putting a hook in the nostrils of Leviathan. It appears to have come into repute in England shortly before the Reformation. The clergy having about that time been forbidden to indulge in the exercise of hunting or other field sports, adopted angling, and as they were then very important personages their example was soon generally followed. The earliest treatise on the subject is that re-published by Wynkin de Worde, in 1496, in the Book of St. Albans, called "Treatiyse of Fysshing with the Angle," and supposed to have been written by Juliana Barnars, prioress of a convent in the neighbourhood of St. Albans. The justly celebrated work of Izaak Walton appeared in 1653, and in a subsequent edition, published in 1657, he was aided by his friend Mr. Cotton. We now possess many excellent publications on the subject, but can assure our young friends that they will find their best book to be the stream-side, and that we can only offer a few general hints for their guidance. Nothing will ever make an angler but actual practice. It is right that our youthful readers should be aware of the existence of certain statutes relative to angling, a want of knowledge of which might otherwise occasion their getting into trouble. The earliest of these enactments took place in the reign of Edward I., and was framed to protect the rights of authorized fishers. The 31 Henry VIII., confirms these, and adds the penalty of imprisonment for three months, and giving security for good behaviour. The 1 Elizabeth, c. 17, forbids the destruction of *fry*, or of *young salmon*, or trout. 22 and 23 of Charles II., c. 27, the use of drag or casting nets, angles, hooks, &c., in any water against the consent of the proprietor of the same, is forbidden with penalties; and 5 George III., makes it felony to enter enclosures or preserves for the purpose of taking fish without the consent of the owners. Besides these there are numerous more recent enactments, all having reference to the protection of proprietors, and to the prevention of too great destruction. There are also *close* times—periods of the year during which, in certain

localities, certain fish may not be taken. We have not, however, space sufficient to enter upon these matters in detail, nor would our doing so be productive of any good, as the information is easy of attainment in whatever locality our young fishermen may be placed.

The art of fishing may be divided into two great parts—sea and fresh-water fishing. It is not our intention to dilate at any length upon the former sport, as it is only occasionally attainable, and as the boatmen whom you employ almost always engage to provide tackle and bait, and are usually better qualified, from their more extensive experience, to advise you than we are. We will not, however, refuse a few words for the sake of those who may fish from a wharf or pier, or at the mouth of a river. The principal fish to be thus taken, are

THE FLOUNDER.—These fish are very numerous, they swim in shoals, and are found almost everywhere. Their spawning time is in the months of May and June; they are in season all the remainder of the year. The best mode of fishing for them is with a long line of fine whipcord, leaded at the end and furnished with about a dozen hooks at intervals; bait with *brandlings*, a worm with rings encircling its body and a white tail, found in rotten tan. In fishing, however, for any sort of fish, ascertain the sort of *food* prevalent in the locality where they are, use it as bait, and you will seldom fail of capture. The flounder may be kept and fattened in enclosed ponds; they are frequently found in rivers at a considerable distance from the sea, and will live very well in fresh water. They are also hardy fish, will live several hours out of water, and may consequently be transported for considerable distances in wet moss. Flounders bite freely all day, but best at flood of tide, when the weather is warm, with just enough wind to ruffle the surface.

THE PLAICE is closely allied to the flounder, and like that fish will thrive in fresh water. It takes the same bait; both fish are partial to the worm called the sand-worm, in Ireland,

"the lug." The other principal sea fish must be pursued in boats; the most usually taken are the coal-fish and mackerel, with occasionally a cod.

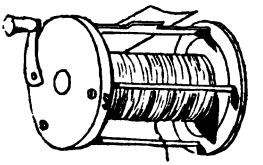
COAL-FISHING is aided by a breeze and a dark sky. You will require strong tackle and heavy lead. Your best bait is an eel, about seven or eight inches long, put on the hook just as a minnow. These fish are usually from three pounds to fifteen in weight, are very voracious, good eating, and afford capital sport.

THE MACKEREL is to be fished for in much the same manner, but requires finer tackle. The best bait is herring-fry, or a bit of fresh mackerel. The use of the latter bait is very common among fishermen, hence the slice off the tail so commonly seen on mackerel for sale at the fishmongers. This slice should be cut so as to resemble as much as possible in form and size the herring-fry. The mouth of the mackerel is very tender, so caution is necessary lest by using violence in getting him in, you drop him from the hook.

There is a small kind of fish caught in some localities in the neighbourhood of rocks, called in Scotland "PODLIES." We do not recollect them sufficiently to be able to pronounce with confidence, although many years ago we caught numbers of them from the rocks where Granton Pier, near Edinburgh, now is, but we do incline to believe them to be the fry of the cod. They are taken with a short line and rod; bait, a bit of muscle or limpet; use a float and a perch-hook, and fish about three feet down.

HERRING-FRY afford good sport; no bait is necessary, but merely to attach half-a-dozen hooks to small flat pieces of deal, and to keep bobbing them up and down. You will frequently take several at once. We now turn to fresh-water fishing, which is also divisible into two heads—nay, more properly into *three;* viz., *bottom-fishing, fly-fishing,* and *trolling.* We shall first speak of the necessary appurtenances. These are a rod, line, hooks, float, bait, basket, and landing-net.

THE ROD.—This should be of three pieces, made to fit into each other by having brass sockets attached to the upper extremity of the first and second piece. The top piece should be tipped with whale-bone; along the front of the rod should be rings, placed at the distance of about eighteen inches from each other, these are for the line to pass through, and on the bottom piece should be a hole and bed to receive and retain the *reel*. You had best *purchase* your rod; but if



Reel, Winch, Pirn, or Troll.

you choose to make one, recollect to use well-seasoned wood. The best time to cut the wood for this purpose is about Christmas, and it is better left in the open air for six or eight months after cutting, then stowed in a dry place. Yew, lancewood, or hiccory make a fine top; the bottom and middle pieces may be of ash, but take care that you do not *taper* your rod too abruptly. The common fault of rods is that the *play* is in the middle, owing to that portion being too light and weak, like a wagon-whip. Never fish with a rod which has lost one of its rings, as the unequal strain thus induced will cause it to snap the first time you hook a heavy fish. Our advice is, therefore, to purchase a good rod from a well-known maker—you will get a good one for about one pound or thirty shillings. The next point is the *line*. This may be formed of hair, gut, or silk; we prefer the last-named substance. We cannot recommend you to make your own; you will find your account rather in *purchasing* from a good maker: the price will be from five to ten shillings.

HOOKS.—These must be proportioned in size and strength



a, Limerick hook; *b*, Kendal hook; *c*, Sneck-bend; *d*, Kirby-bend.

to the description of fish of which you are in pursuit. The *straight* are preferable to the crooked hooks: see that the *shank* be sufficiently long, and the *barb* perfect. We believe that the hooks manufactured at Limerick, in Ireland, are the best in the world;—they can ever be obtained for about one penny each, at the shop of Martin Kelly, Sackville-street, Dublin, who will attend to a Post-office communication as punctually and as honourably as to *one delivered vivâ voce*. The great Limerick house was formerly, in our time, that of Mr. O'Shaughnessy,—whether he is still "to the fore," or not, we are uncertain; but believe him to be no more, as his establishment is in possession of another. We shall speak of *flies* further on. In middle, or bottom-fishing, you require a *float*. This may be made of cork, with a quill passed through it to receive the line. You will fasten your float at such a distance from your hook as the depth of the water, or the fish you are in search of, may require; and take care so to adjust it, and to fix the lead on the line, that the slightest pull will bring it down. Take care, also, that the *shoulder* of your hook be sufficiently strong. *Bait* of course varies with the description of fish you desire to take, and shall be spoken of accordingly; as a general rule, however, we may remark that your safest guide will be an examination of the prevailing flies, grub, or worms to be met with in the neighbourhood of the stream or lake in which you are trying your skill. You will find a BASKET necessary, (at least it is to be *hoped* you will,) for carrying the produce of your sport; it is formed concave on one side, so as to lie upon your side, and is attached to a single strap passed

obliquely across your shoulder. A landing-net is indispensable, and its rim should be *jointed*, so as to admit of its being packed in a small compass and carried in the pocket, with a socket to receive the handle. The fisher should also have a "fly-book," containing an assortment of artificial flies and of feathers, and silk twine, with wax, &c., in order that he may have an opportunity of tying up imitations of such real flies as he will find hovering over the surface of the place where he angles. The book, and an assortment of flies, may



Arming, Whipping, or Ooping.

be obtained at the fishing-tackle makers; but he who can skilfully tie his own flies, will ever, if he possess judgment, fill his basket more rapidly than he who is solely dependent upon the shop. To tie flies properly and "*killingly*" requires much practice and attention, but the success which a knowledge of the art of doing so confers, more than counterbalances the labour necessary to its attainment.

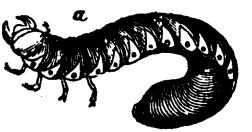
It is right that we should here explain to our young readers that, although we have only spoken of "the rod" in the singular number, they should, if they can accomplish it, possess rods of different length and make, as most suitable to the different descriptions of fishing to which they may be applied. That rod which we have described, is such as will be found most useful for general purposes. The rod for fly-fishing should be as light as *strength* will admit of, and may be longer than the general rod; which, by the way, should be so contrived as to admit of an additional piece or *but*, at the lower end, for trolling. The rod for spinning-minnow should be longer than either,—for you, about fifteen or sixteen feet; but for a person capable of holding it, even eighteen or twenty.

For roach, perch, dace, and other fish which rarely attain a very large size, you will require a light taper rod, very *elastic*, and stout at the but. Many prefer for roach fishing a rod without rings, and consequently without running-tackle, and to use a very short line. We believe, however, that the running-tackle is ever preferable, and that, to an expert hand, it offers no impediment to rapidity of action.

Besides the appliances already described, if the young angler desire or is able to possess himself of a complete equipment, he will require lines of different substances,—as silk, hair, silkworm gut, Indian weed, and patent trolling line. Hooks and foot-lines for trolling with wired gorges, for the snap, &c.; baiting-needles; hooks from No. 3—12, tied on gut; and hooks from No. 9—13, tied on hair; besides a number of loose hooks of all sizes, with gut and silk for tying, split shot, bullets attached to twine for ascertaining the depth of the water, drag, gaff, disgorger, bags for worms, box for maggots and grubs, kettle for live bait, box for caddis, fly-book, tackle-book, and book containing materials for making artificial flies;—these may, however, be carried in the pockets of the fly-book.

As bait, you will take care to have the following:

THE LOB WORM.—This is a large worm, with a streak down the back, a red head, and a broad flat tail; it is best taken at night with a lantern, anywhere on short grass. It is in season from May to September, and is good bait for eel, salmon, and trout; principally, however, for eel.



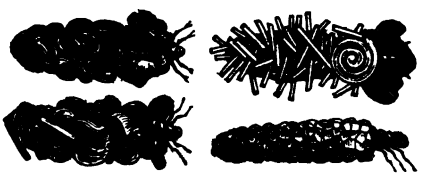
a, the grub of the cockchafer, called by anglers the earth bob.

THE BRANDLING is streaked from head to tail with rings

alternately red and yellow. It will be found in old dunghills, or among rotten tan. The best have a palish yellow tail. It is good bait for perch, trout, and eels; but is, in our opinion, greatly inferior in attraction to

THE RED WORM.—This worm is small, and bright red in colour. It is found in rotten bark and in damp places near old dunghills. This is an excellent general bait, and will often take trout when they refuse everything else.

THE BLACK HEAD,—called by some the *sedge worm*, as it is generally found in sedges,—is good bait in such localities only. There is a red worm, with a black head, found under stones at the bottom of streams, which is good bait for trout. The *gentle*, or flesh-maggot, may be obtained from the chandler's. It is a good bait for some fresh water fish,—as trout, chub, roach, dace, barbel, and bleak: the later in the season the more useful you will find it. The caddis worm is



Figures of four caddis worms, in variously-formed cases.

found in shallow streams; it is the larva of several descriptions of fly. It is easily known as enclosed in bits of stone, stick, or straw, and is of several varieties, according to the fly it produces, and each variety adopts a different case. The dock grub, a large white grub, with a reddish head, found among the roots of the water-dock weed, is very good bait for trout during the months of April and May. You drop it gently into deep still holes, or in the foam at the lock of a canal in which it is known that trout are.

CREEPERS, or water-crickets, are good bait for trout. New soft cheese is good bait for barbel. Fish in a deep pool

—let your hook lie near the bottom, and do not stir it until you feel a good pull. *Dough*, worked up with *clean hands*, and mixed with a little cotton or wool to keep it together, is good bait for roach and for general pond-fishing. Your bait should be about the size of a pea.

SALMON ROE.—This is the most killing bait that can be used for trout, indeed so much so that many anglers are ashamed to use it. We, however, are less scrupulous, and would entertain no such objection were it not that the only time the roe can be procured is just before spawning time, when the fish are out of season, and when it is consequently most inhuman and unsportsmanlike to disturb, far less to destroy them. There is an imitation of this bait to be procured in the fishing shops; this we would conscientiously recommend, but by no means the original. For bait-fishing it is advisable, in order to ensure success, to employ what is called *ground-bait*. The best is a mixture of chandler's greaves, clay, and bran, made into balls of moderate size. These are thrown into the water some hours before you intend to fish, if overnight so much the better; they attract the fish, and render them less suspicious and more willing to take your hook.



a, one of the natural palmers; *b*, one of the artificial palmers.

FLIES.—The most generally useful are the following:

THE RED HACKLE, or soldier palmer.—The body is formed of red mohair, ribbed with gold twist, and the hackle of a red cock tied over-all. We would recommend the young angler to add this fly to every cast. If the water be very low and clear, omit the gold twist, and substitute red twist. Too much cannot be said in praise of this fly.

THE GREEN DRAKE, a most serviceable fly during its season, which is the latter end of May or beginning of June. Make the body of yellow floss silk, ribbed with brown silk, extremes —head and tail—copper peacock's herl. The legs a red hackle. Wings — mottled wing of mallard, stained olive. Tail—three hairs from a rabbit's whisker. In their absence, those from a goat's back, or even those from a small camel's hair paint-brush will do nearly as well. Dress on a No. 4 hook.

THE BLACK PALMER is an invaluable fly in dark or rainy weather, and in flood-streams. Body—ostrich herl, black cock's hackle over all: tie with silver twist.

THE STONE FLY appears in April, and is useful in windy weather in May and June, in the evening or morning. Body —fur of hare's ears, mixed with dun mohair, and ribbed with yellow silk. Legs—brownish red hackle. Wing—the dark feather of the mallard's wing, two or three fibres of the mottled feather of the partridge. This is a large fly: tie it upon a No. 6 hook.

THE SAND-FLY.—Good for trout and grayling, from April to October. Body—the fur from a hare's neck; twist with silk of the same colour. Legs—red hen's hackle. Wings— feather from the wing of a landrail or corncrake. Dress on a No. 9 hook; in October, on a hook, No. 12.

THE WREN TAIL.—Body of dark orange silk; the legs and wings of a wren's tail. Dress as a hackle. This an excellent fly in small bright streams.

THE BLACK GNAT.—Body—black hackle, tied with black silk. Wing—the feather from an ostrich's wing. An excellent fly for trout and dace.

THE HARE'S EAR DUN.—Body—the fur of a hare's ear. Wings—from the feather of those of a starling. Tail—two fibres of the brown feather of a starling's wing. Tie on a No. 10 hook.

THE PALE YELLOW DUN.—Body of yellow mohair; wing from the light feather of that of a young starling; tie with yellow silk, on a No. 12 hook. This fly should ever occupy a place in your book; it has acquired much reputation, and it deserves it. There is also an excellent fly, known as "Hoffland's Fancy," having been a favourite with the well-known angler of that name. It is thus described in Mr. Hoffland's very excellent and deeply interesting "British Anglers' Manual;" a work which our young readers, when they become older, and have larger opportunities of extending their piscatory propensities, would do well to procure:—"This fly, from its having been my great favourite for many years, has, by my friends, been named as above; and as I am convinced of its excellence as a general fly, I am content to adopt it." "Mr. Willingham, formerly of the Strand, sold great numbers of them under this name. I have had sport with it in most parts of England, but particularly in the vicinity of London, in Hampshire, and when fishing in the Wandle, the Colne, the Cray, or the Dart. I rarely use any other fly as a stretcher. I have killed trout with this fly at Farningham, when the May-fly has been strong on the water, and the fish have refused any other that I could offer. It may be used after sunset, with success, in any part of the kingdom, and in any season.

"Imitation. Body—reddish dark-brown silk. Legs—red hackle. Wings—woodcock's wing. Tail—two or three strands of a red hackle. Hook, No. 10."

As we have already endeavoured to show that the flies you put up must depend upon the season, the weather, the state of the water, and the fish you expect to find in it, as a general rule, when the water is clouded and full, let your flies be large and dark-coloured, when the water is low and

clear, and the weather bright, let your flies be pale in colours and small. The hackle flies are nearly always more generally useful than the winged flies; but in some lakes the contrary is the case. The most approved practice is to use a small palmer or hackle for the drop, and a winged fly for the stretcher. We think that the following is a correct view of the flies most proper to each month of the angling season:

"February.—Dark fox, hare's ear and claret, dark gray hackle, plain black hackle, gray sooty.

"March.—Plain black hackle, plain wren, dark brown rail, dark olive camel; fox, half a shade lighter than last month; dark brown camel; latter end of the month brown coughlin; dark red hackles' bodies, with brown coughlin; dirty tawny bodied, with hare's ear; green cow-dung, gray sooty.

"April.—Gray coughlin, light olive camel, light brown rail, ash fox-blow for latter end of the moth, orange cow-dung, blue blow, tipped wing black, plain black midge, hare's ear and yellow, hare's ear and green, plain red hackle, orange bodied, do., tipped black hackle, plain black hackle, blue bodied black hackle, buff fox, gray sooty, all kinds of wren hackles, gray hackles. This list will bring you into May, and some of them into June.

"May.—Hawthorn fly, yellow May fly, golden sooty, light fox, cream camel, brown rail, fancy hackle flies, caterpillars, green beetles, black, do., golden palmers, yellow and orange palmers, stone fly, plain and brown beetles.

"June.—All the May-flies and green fox come in now, and with light fox continues all the *summer*. Light rail, blue bodied black hackle, orange bodied red, fancy wrens, gold palmer, green beetle, scaldcrow midge, and night moth.

"July and August.—The above flies, and the cinnamon, called the cadbait fly.

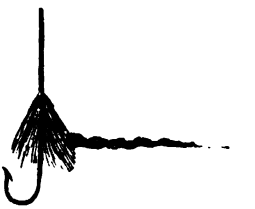
"September.—Muddy green fox, green rail with plain red hackle, orange bodied, do., light rail, plain and fancy wrens; small cadbait, breasted with woodcock hackle and double wings, last during the fishing season."

We have now endeavoured to furnish the young fly-fisher with such general directions as to the filling of his fly-book as are likely to prove useful; but we must again remind him that no book will supply the place of *study by the side of the brook*. Fish, especially trout, are exceedingly capricious and whimsical,—they will sometimes reject a favourite fly, and bite freely, nay greedily, at one which at other times they would not approach; it is therefore indispensable that you should, if you desire to become a genuine brother of the angle, learn how to tie your own flies, and never assume your piscatory gear unprovided with the necessary materials. In short, no one can expect to have a sufficient assortment of ready-made flies to meet every emergency, how extensive soever that assortment may be, and many anglers have lost whole days vainly seeking in their well filled book for the fly that would kill. Maxwell, author of "Wild Sports in the West," tells a capital anecdote in point:—"I had," quoth he, "two sporting friends who were excellent instances of this. Colonel S. was an ardent, and, I may add, a very tolerable angler. No one went to more trouble and expense in procuring the most approved flies; he never tied, or attempted to tie one, and he assured me he had many hundred dozens in his possession. To find a new fly was with him sometimes the labour of a day; and when about to try another water, he would spend hours toiling through his immense variety, before he could succeed in discovering the necessary colour and description. I have seen him with Job-like patience labouring through endless papers and parcels in search of a paltry insect that I could fabricate in five minutes. His companion, Captain B., ran into an opposite extreme. He rarely had a second casting line, and seldom a second set of flies. Did the day change, or the river fill or lower, he sat down upon the bank, ripped wings and dubbings from his hooks, and prepared a new outfit in a twinkling. I never met an angler who was so certain of filling a basket as my friend B. His system, however, I would wholly disapprove

of. Without burthening oneself with enough to furnish out a tackle-shop, a small and effective collection is desirable, and it is absurd to lose a fortunate half-hour, tying, on the river bank, what could be more conveniently fabricated during the tedium of a wet day within doors. An accident may rob the most discreet angler of his flies, and surely it is necessary to have a fresh relay to put up. But though I take a sufficiency along with me, I never leave home without being provided with the materials for constructing new ones. An hour may bring ephemeræ on the waters, which you must imitate, or you will cast in vain; before evening they will have vanished, and given place to some new variety of the insect world." Our readers will therefore perceive that the well-known line,

"In mediis tutissimus ibis,"

holds good in this, as in other respects. Provide yourself with as good a supply of flies as you can. We mean with an assortment of good general flies, such as are adapted to the season, or the waters you are going to fish; but do not rest your entire dependence upon these;—bring with you the means of imitating whatever flies may be "*out*" for the day, and success will surely attend you in the shape of a well-filled creel.



Dubbing.

Now for a few brief instructions as to *how* to make your flies:—Have all your materials properly sorted and laid out

before you,—hooks, gut, wings, hackles, dubbing, (or body matter,) wax, silk, gimp, &c.; next sort your hooks according to size, for the different flies you are going to make—examine your gut, prove its soundness, and lay it *straight*; strip you hackles, and mix the dubbing thoroughly; sort your silk. You then proceed to tie on the wings. For this purpose hold the hook between your forefinger and thumb, and with the waxed silk in the other hand, give a few turns round the bare hook, about its middle. Lay the end of the gut along the *upper side* of the hook; wrap the silk firmly, until you get within a few turns of the top: then take the wings, lay them along the



Artificial wings made of feathers.

shank with the right hand, and retain them firmly in their place with the other. Tie the feather tightly at the point of contact; cut off superfluous ends; tie the head tightly, and, carrying the silk round the gut, retrace it until you come again to the tying on of the wings: divide these equally, and carry the silk through the division two or three times, alternately, in order properly to separate the wings. You next prepare the hackle, by drawing back the fibres, and by having



Hackles for the legs of artificial flies.

a few less on the but, on that side of the feather which comes next the hook; then tie the but of the hackle close to the wings, having its upper side towards the head of the fly; then take the *dubbing* between the fore-finger and thumb of your right hand, and twisting it slightly in your silk, carry it a few times round the hook, as far as the hackle or *legs* extend, and fasten it there. The hackle, or *bug* fly is thus made—prepare your feather by stripping off the superfluous



Mode of fixing the hackles.

parts at the but, and drawing back as much fibre as will form the fly; draw the feather through your lips in order to make the fibres adhere, and then, the gut being fastened to the hook, tie on the feather near the head of the hook; twist it a few times round the hook, and fasten it by three or four loops: its fibres will then lie the reverse way; cut off then the superfluous parts of the feather, and twist on the body; fasten by three loops, draw down the fibres of the feather to the bend, and your fly is made. If gold twist or tinsel be necessary, it is to be added immediately after the hackle, but brought round the body before the hackle makes the legs. If the tinsel be required for the tail, it must be put on immediately after the gut,—then comes the hackle; next the body, &c. After all, however, you will find that *seeing* a fly tied by some expert friend will initiate you into the method far more rapidly than any written instructions ever possibly can. A few shillings laid out at a respectable tackle-maker's, may procure you a similar initiation, and you will find your account in "doing your possible" to obtain it.

Before proceeding to treat of the individual descriptions of

fish of which your sport will consist, it is fit that we should tell you that your bait also requires a little preparation previous to use, called *scouring*. This process renders the worms more lively, and more tough, than when first taken. The best mode of scouring is getting some clean moss, washing it, and squeezing it afterwards, until nearly dry; then place the worms in it, about a week before you will require them for use; change the moss twice during the week, and remove any dead or apparently sickly worms. To place a worm on your hook, insert the point of your hook a little below the head of the worm, and carry it along carefully, without breaking the skin, to within a short distance of the tail, taking care that both the shank and barb of the hook be well covered.

We shall now give some account of the different descriptions of fish, and the best method of taking them; and as fly-fishing is admitted to be the chief department of the science of angling, and salmon the principal fish thus taken, we shall commence with it.

THE SALMON.—This fish has been styled, and with justice, the "king of fresh-water fish." In some of its habits the salmon presents remarkable peculiarities, which are deserving of notice. Spawning takes place towards the close of the year, usually about October or November, and at this period the salmon pass up the rivers as far as they can reach, and deposit their ova in receptacles in the sand, which they have previously scraped out. This spawn remains in the receptacles until spring, by which time it is *hatched*, and the young are excluded. This takes place about the end of March; in the middle of May, the rivers will be seen almost alive with salmon-fry, from four to six inches in length, and with the first flood these, called *smelts*, or *smouts*, betake themselves to the sea, and return to the rivers towards the end of June; they are then from a foot to a foot and a-half in length, and subsequently increase so rapidly, that in August or September they have attained the weight of eight or nine pounds. In short,

as the venerable Izaak Walton has observed, "The samlet becomes a salmon in as short a time as a gosling becomes a goose." Towards the end of August, or middle of September, as the time for spawning approaches, the salmon have become heavy and lazy, and lie amongst the rocks: they here acquire a quantity of parasitical insects, resembling lice; these are removed by their migration to the fresh water; and again, when lying in the river after spawning, they are attacked by a description of fresh-water vermin, which are removed by their return to the sea. This would appear to be a provision of Providence designed to *coerce* the fish to these migrations, essential to the propagation of the species. It is the male salmon who forms the receptacle for the spawn, and he is for this purpose furnished with a remarkable excrescence within the mouth, which, as it grows, forms for itself a socket in the upper jaw; this effectually locks up the mouth and greatly facilitates the salmon's digging operations: while the male is thus employed, the female exerts herself to drive away all such small fish as approach with a view to devour the spawn. When the hole is ready, the male brings his mate to it; she deposits the spawn, and he covers it up. When it happens that either is caught at spawning time, the survivor at once selects another mate.

When the salmon-fry have attained the weight of seven or eight pounds, they are called *grilse*. When the grilse has attained the weight of nine or ten pounds, it becomes a salmon, and then grows from twenty to seventy pounds weight. Mr. Hoffland mentions, (Angler's Manual, p. 35,) that the largest salmon he ever saw or heard of, was in the possession of Mr. Grove, of Bond-street, London, and that it weighed eighty-three pounds. The salmon is a fish of great strength and activity, and when in their passage up the river they are impeded by cascades or waterfalls, they spring over them with singular agility. These places are called "salmon leaps;" and in the neighbourhood of Leixlip, within

a few miles of Dublin, is one of these, which has even given a name to the locality.

It may be an advantage to the young angler to know what principal rivers in the three portions of the United Kingdom are most abundant in their supply of salmon, as such information may direct the throwing of their line with success.

In England.—The Thames, especially about Richmond, and between that and Isleworth; salmon, however, are gradually disappearing from the Thames, in consequence of the gas-works, the refuse-water of which, falling into the river, proves fatal to the fish. The Tyne, in Northumberland; the Lune, in Lancashire; the Avon, in Hampshire; the Trent, in Lincolnshire and Nottinghamshire; the Wye, in Herefordshire; the Dee, in Cheshire.

In Scotland.—The Tay, the Tweed, the Clyde, the Don, the Spey, and the Aire. In Scotland, also, salmon are to be found in several lakes; as Loch Aire, Loch Fine, near Inverary, and indeed every lake communicating with the sea.

In Ireland, the principal rivers are the Erne, at Ballyshannon; the Moy, at Ballina; the Ban, at Coleraine; the Blackwater, at Lismore; the Shannon, a little above Limerick. Lakes:—Loch Luggin, in Connemara; the Lakes of Killarney, where, if the angler find salmon scarce, he will have plenty of trout of the very finest description. Indeed, nearly all the Irish lakes and rivers of any size abound with salmon.

Now, to *take* the fish.—You require a long and stout rod, and as its stoutness might make it too heavy to be manageable, it is well to have all but the top made of *ash;* this being the lightest wood. Your tackle must be also very strong, and your line from sixty to eighty yards in length, requiring a reel of proportionate size. The most killing flies are, in England and Wales, dull-coloured ones of moderate size; but in Ireland and Scotland, large gaudy flies succeed best. When the water is discoloured, as is so commonly the case in Ireland from the neighbourhood of peat bogs, the large

gaudy fly is best; where this is not the case, the smaller and duller fly will, as generally in England, prove most killing. Any of the first-rate tackle-shops will supply you with such flies as are most suitable to the rivers you are about to visit; and, having your materials by you, you can in a few minutes, should these fail, put up imitations of whatever appears the favourite natural fly upon the stream. In throwing the fly, it must not be let float gently down the stream, as in trout fishing; but must be permitted to sink a little, and then drawn back by a slight jerk, but without lifting it out of the water. By the way, it is well to mention, in case any of our readers should fish the Blackwater, in Ireland, that the most killing bait which can be used on that river is a red lob-worm, previously, of course, well scoured in moss. This will succeed best *in the stream*, and you must be careful to keep yourself well hid. The "colly," or "killaroo," as it is locally termed, is also a capital bait; and in any river, you will find a *boiled shrimp* a killing bait towards dusk. Indeed, on some Irish rivers, you have, ere obtaining permission to fish, to pledge your honour not to use the shrimp bait. The salmon is rather a heavy fish for a youngster to deal with; yet Mr. Hoffland informs us, that he himself killed one at the early age of nine; and we ourselves have known one weighing fifteen pounds to have been killed by a young friend aged thirteen. We turn, however, to more every day fare.

THE TROUT.—This is the great object of the fly-fisher. The trout varies more than any other fish with which we are acquainted, both in size and appearance. It spawns in October or November, and is not in season for the rod until April, or indeed May. They may be deemed in perfection about the middle of June: the season continues until September. Trout will thrive in a moderate-sized pond, and will attain a larger size, if there be good feeding, than in a river. The age to which they live is uncertain; but the age of the trout caught cannot be estimated by its size, as there are small varieties which never pass a certain bulk. The trout,

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when in good condition, presents a small head, a short and deep body, and a broad tail. When the head is large in proportion to the body, the flesh will be found insipid.

Trout may be fished for in a variety of ways. 1. The artificial fly.—This is unquestionably the most gentlemanly, and, so to speak, *scientific* mode of angling, but not invariably the most successful. Your rod should be about eight or ten feet long, and as slight as is compatible with sufficient strength. Your line may be from twenty-five to thirty yards in length. A cast of flies usually consists of three; that at the extremity being technically known as the *stretcher*, and the other two as the *droppers*. The beginner had better omit one dropper. It is a good plan to practise casting at first with a bare line, until he can throw it to any given point, and let it fall as lightly as a gossamer thread upon the stream. The best stream for trout is a rapid, clear one, with a good gravelly bottom: he much frequents the eddies, and is more frequently found near the sides of the stream than in the centre. *Keep yourself out of sight of the fish*, and make no noise; your best plan will be to cast your line a little above you and across the stream, and then draw it gently towards you; you must, however, to a considerable extent be guided in the manner of casting your line, by the direction or power of the wind. Endeavour to keep the sun in such relation to you that it will not throw your shadow on the stream. The most favourable winds are south, south-east, and south-west; a fresh breeze, just sufficient to bring a ripple upon the water, is also favourable to your sport. On a lake, the more wind, up to an actual gale, the better. In the commencement of the season, as in April, you need not put out the fly before eight o'clock. The minnow will answer best very early in the morning. From May to the middle of July the fly will kill from the earliest dawn to dark. In July and August the sun is generally too bright in the middle of the day, and the best time is before sunrise, and after sunset; but in a flood, or after one, before the water has cleared, or

on a cloudy day, the fish will take the whole day. We have already furnished the reader with a list of flies, and with directions for making others. From the latter end of May to the middle of June, the green and gray drake flies are on the water, and the natural fly may then be used with advantage, but they require an expert hand.



Minnow hook baited.

In spring the *minnow* will be found a capital bait; it is indeed so killing that it is prohibited on some rivers. For minnow you require a stiffer rod, and especially a stiffer *top* than you do for fly-fishing, and the line also need not be more than eighteen or twenty yards in length. You will find your account in providing yourself with a pair of waterproof over-alls, to enable you to wade the stream where it is wide; this will give you a great advantage over such as fish from the bank alone. The tackle for minnows will be procured at the shops, and as it varies greatly, we prefer recommending you to get yourself shown how to bait the minnow when purchasing it, to giving any description of it ourselves. The twirling or spinning of the minnow is the great beauty of this description of sport, the motion appearing to the trout to be caused by the efforts of his prey to escape, and thus redoubling his efforts to overtake it. The minnow is to be drawn up stream. Minnow may usually be caught in a small net in most streams, and one of the best is a cast green veil, fastened to a wire hoop; but they may also be purchased for a few pence per dozen at the tackle-shops. Gudgeon are also good bait for trout, especially for large fish. A large grub, caddis worm, or chandler's maggot, placed *on the fly*, and slightly touched with assafœtida dissolved in oil of ivy, is a most alluring bait; but we much question its legitimacy in a

strictly sporting point of view. The lob-worm and marsh-worm, and also the brandling, are excellent bait for trout; drop the line gently into the water, follow it with the rod until it touches the bottom, and then draw it gently towards your left side. The best places for worm-fishing are deep holes, under old trees, and under banks; for worm, you must, in clear water, use the finest possible tackle, or you will have no chance. After sunset in summer, use the worm without any shot on the line, and try it on a sharp, deep stream. The red worm is also a good bait. There are times when a float is a useful addition, especially in July and August, when trout will not take the fly at all at mid-day, and in deep, still waters. An excellent bait is also a house-fly or water-clock; bait your hook with two or three of this, drop it gently in until it nearly touches the bottom. We have taken, and seen taken, some very fine trout in this manner at the loch of the canal, just opposite the Richmond barracks, Dublin. When you hook a trout, keep your rod as straight as you can, and keep the trout as near the top of the water as possible—above all, be cool, and take your time,—if the fish pull hard, let out line and give him a run, still keeping your line on the stretch; this will cause him to turn shortly; give him a run in the other direction, and you will soon tire him; he will then become passive, and, still keeping your line at the stretch, and the trout's head well up, you wind in your line, and soon bring your conquered prey within reach of your landing-net, which you pass gently under him, and lift him on the bank. Space will not permit our enlarging upon this subject, which might well command an entire volume; but we think that the preceding instructions will suffice, at all events, for the initiation of the young trout-fisher—the practical experience of the river's bank, or the deep loch, will do the rest.

About London you will find plenty of trout in the Thames; at the Weir, near Teddington Loch; at that of Sunbury, at Windsor; and as far as Streetly, in Berkshire; the Lea, the

Colne, near Cowley and Drayton mills; the Wandle, in Surrey. On the Wye, in Herefordshire, there is also good trout-fishing, as we can recollect to have experieneed in person, when we were a merry schoolboy at the Royal Cathedral School of that city. We have also a lively remembrance of a small, lively fish, which abounded in the rapids of the river, especially at a shallow part called the "Silver Stream," known locally as "Lastprings," which afforded us much sport. As well as we can at this lapse of time recollect this fish, it is the salmon-pink, not, however, the fry of the salmon, as we used to imagine when a boy, although strangely enough it is not found in any river but such as are frequented by salmon. Such of our readers as may reside in or near Edinburgh will find sport in the "Waters of Leith," in the Esk, the Forth, and the Almond; and we venture to express a wish that these pages may afford some instruction to the present inmates of our old friends the High School and the Edinburgh Academy, to the former of which we owe some of our scholastic attainments, ere being committed to the fostering care of Alma Mater.

About Dublin there are few good trout streams, as they are too much *hacked* and poached. The Tolka, or Sword's river, contains some good fish; we have ourselves killed individual fish up to two pounds and a half weight. The Dodder is too near the city, and affords too many facilities for Sunday-fishing to the then idle "great unwashed;" still, a smart hand with a good cast of flies will occasionally fill his basket; seldom, however, with anything over three-quarters of a pound weight. The best fishing immediately beside Dublin is the Liffey, from Palmerstown to Leixlip. Most of the river is preserved, but the proprietors are not unmindful of Irish hospitality, and will rarely refuse permission to a real sportsman, even without an introduction. The "Liffey-head," near Blessington, a smart morning's drive from Dublin, affords capital sport also.

The CHARR is one of the most beautiful of its class, and

is chiefly to be found in Lakes Windermere, Buttermere, and Ulswater. It is also taken in many of our Irish lakes, as Lough Dan, Lough Esk, Lough Neagh, Luggela, &c. Charr lie very deep, and the only method of taking them is a very long line baited with a minnow, and with a bullet as a sinker. This fish is excellent eating, but affords no sport.

THE ROACH.—This beautiful fish will rise freely to the fly in the evening, after a warm day. Your tackle must be extremely fine; pellets of dough, or chandler's maggots, are also excellent bait: fish near the surface, about two feet from your float.

THE PERCH.—This is one of the most common pursuits of the young angler, and we shall accordingly devote to it some little extra attention. The perch is a voracious fish and a bold biter, and the humblest description of tackle answers equally as well as the best. The most favourable periods of the day are from sunrise to nine o'clock in the morning, and from five till dusk in the evening. The perch spawns about the latter end of April, and are not again in condition till August; they should not be fished during that interval. In size the perch varies from an ounce to eight or nine pounds, but fish of half a pound weight are the common average in ordinary places, and anywhere a perch over two pounds weight is regarded a large fish. The localities where perch most abound are canals, ponds, and other still waters; in small and rapid streams they are seldom abundant, but are to be met with in large, deep, and quiet rivers. The usual bait for perch are the red worm, the brandling, the gudgeon; but by far the best, if you expect to take large fish, is the minnow: fish deep, within a few inches of the bottom; when a fish bites do not strike at once, but give time that the hook may be properly gorged—use a cork float. An old trout-fisher will, however, prefer the following plan:—Put one or two red worms on your hook, use no float, but cast across the stream or canal, or if in a pond, as far as you can; let the bait sink, and draw it in towards you; cast out again,

and so on, till you get a bite. In a pond or still water, use no sinkers. The perch is, in some counties of England, known as the bass.

THE BARBEL.—So called from a beard, or wattles, about his mouth. He is a handsome fish, and very active in the water, hence affording excellent sport, and indeed being a good fish at which to *enter* the young angler ere he attempt trout; but his flesh is almost useless for the table. The barbel spawn in May and June, and are in season from July afterwards. In float-fishing the best bait is gentles or chandler's maggots. A lob-worm, suffered to trail along the ground, is also good bait: *new cheese*, dropped from the bank into a deep hole in an eddy or stream, is one of the best baits for barbel that you could use. In barbel-fishing it is necessary to make copious use of ground-bait.

THE DACE.—A small, lively river fish, fond of sporting near the surface where the sun is shining. They spawn in March, and are in season from about the middle or latter end of April. In cloudy weather they will be found in deep water, near wharfs or bridges, but in sunshine they may be seen sporting in shoals in the shallows near streams. Like the preceding fish, the dace affords more pleasure than profit. It shows good sport, but its flesh is no great thing. In the morning, the dace will rise to the fly, of which we are disposed to state that the ant-fly is the favourite; at other times they will take the red worm, brandling, or almost any sort of caterpillar or fly, especially the flesh-fly. A small bit of the clean skin of chandler's greaves, properly scalded, is a capital bait at all times.

The BLEAK is a pretty little fish, not very unlike the minnow, for which, also, he is sometimes substituted as a bait. He affords good sport to young anglers, as he will rise to almost any fly,—fish, if with bait, about mid water, and bait with gentles. The colour of the bleak is a shining bluish green on the back, greenish white on the sides, and belly of a silvery whiteness; fins, dirty white.

The GUDGEON is worth catching in a net, for he swims in shoals, and is most excellent eating. They will take bait freely, and are easily taken: bait with a very small red worm.

The CHUB is very common in almost all our rivers. It frequents deep pools under bushes or overhanging banks. The chub spawn in April or May, and are best in season from October to April. It will attain to the weight of five or six pounds. The chub will take almost any bait, but nothing proves so alluring to him as a *cockchafer*. In fishing for him you must be careful to keep out of sight.

THE BREAM.—Abundant in the Thames and Lea, and being a heavy fish, is good sport,—plenty, also, in several of the canals about London; and in some of the lakes in Ireland it grows to a large size, often being taken over twelve pounds weight. You must ground bait for a week before angling for this fish—you will then have right sport. It is in season in March and April, spawns in May, and is again in season in autumn: fish near the bottom, and bait with a red worm or gentle.

THE CARP.—In "Baker's Chronicle" we have,—

> "Hops and turkies, *carp* and beer,
> Came into England all in a year."

They spawn about the end of May or beginning of June. Carp are in high esteem as a pond-fish, and in favourable water, where they have good feeding, grow to an enormous size. Izaak Walton, indeed, speaks of their sometimes attaining the extraordinary weight of 50lbs! Carp are chiefly to be met with in artificial lakes and ponds in the pleasure-grounds of the nobility and gentry, and will become very tame when thus kept, so tame, even as to come at call, to answer to a name, and to feed from the hand. In carp-fishing you must use a strong rod, a light float, and bait with red worm, your bait must *all but touch* the bottom. Ground bait freely with bread and bran worked up together the night before. Keep well out of sight, for the carp is, in its natural

state, very shy. April and May are the best months for carp-fishing, and the most favourable periods of the day are early in the morning or late in the evening.

The TENCH is most commonly found in ponds. They are remarkably tenacious of life, and may be carried many hundred miles by railway, packed in wet moss, without any injury to their health. It spawns in June. Angle for tench in the manner directed for carp, and use the same baits. The most favourable period of the day is at the very earliest dawn of morning, ere even twilight has passed away.

We now come to a fish that holds in the river, or the lake, a position very similar to that occupied on land by the wolf, and in the ocean by the shark—to which latter, indeed, he is usually compared—we mean THE PIKE.

THE PIKE. "The freshwater shark."—This is the most ravenous fish that swims; he is literally the tyrant of the flood, and but one fish escapes his hungry maw—that is the *perch*. The perch, when it is approached by its enemy, erects its spinous dorsal fin, and in this condition the hardiest and hungriest pike dare not attempt to swallow it, as it would occasion much laceration of its throat, if, indeed, it could at all be gorged. If even a pike get away after having been hooked, he will, in most instances, return to the charge, and that even more than once. In angling for pike, the fisher, even if his mind have been cast in the most delicately sensitive mould, need entertain no compunctions on the score of humanity, for he is ridding the waters of a merciless destroyer, who lives by decimating the ranks of the poor trout and other finny innocents. Even ducks and goslings have been pulled down by him; and the story, originally told by the learned Gesner, of the pike that seized upon the lips of a mule, and suffered himself to be drawn out of the water upon the land before he quitted his hold, is to be found in most popular treatises. The pike is a solitary fish, and his haunts are to be sought in the still, quiet, deep places of a river, in old docks off canals, and in lakes and ponds.

Within a stone's throw of where we at present write, and within sight of our window, is an old dock such as we speak of, used for containing such of the canal boats as have become unserviceable, where pike of from two to ten pounds weight are frequently caught, and, as soon as leisure permits, we intend trying our hand. While dressing the other morning we saw from our window a small pike taken, on which we sallied forth to inspect it, and found it a very promising young monster, of about twenty inches in length. The gudgeon is about one of the best bait you can use.

There are several different methods of fishing for pike, some of which it is necessary to describe. As some of these methods are similar to those employed in taking other large fish, we have purposely deferred their description till now, in order that the one detail might serve for all. One of the most ordinary methods is TROLLING.

TROLLING requires a strong, stiffish, and stout rod; an ordinary rod may, on an emergency, be converted into a trolling rod by adding a supplemental butt: this is, however, inconvenient, and is only to be used in cases of strict necessity. The reel should be the same as that used by many of our best salmon fishers, *viz.*, a wooden one, called in Scotland a "pirn;" it winds with greater rapidity and less noise than a brass reel. The best description of hook is the "gorge hook." The method of baiting this hook we quote from Hofland's "British Angler."



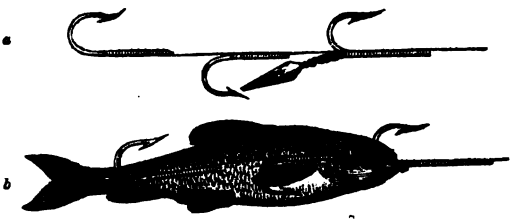
Gorge hook and baiting needle.

"You must have a brass needle, about seven inches long; put the loop of the gimp to the eye, or small curve, of the needle; then put the point of the needle in at the mouth of the fish, and bring it out at his tail; bring the gimp and

wire along with it, the bait being fixed in the belly of the bait-fish, and the hook or hooks lying close to the outside of his mouth; then turn the points of his hooks toward his eyes, if a double hook; but if a single one, directly in a line with his belly; next tie the fish's tail to the arming wire very neatly, with strong thread. To the line on your reel you must attach a gimp-trace, twenty-four inches long, having a swivel at each end, and one in the middle. The spring-swivel, at the end of your line, is to be hooked on the loop of your baited trace, and you are ready for sport."

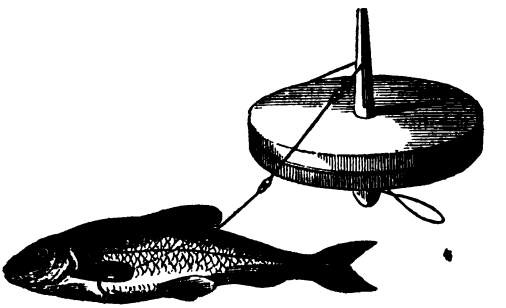
You must drop your bait in gently, then cast on each side, so as to gain line, and next throw as far as you can; but some prefer letting out sufficient line first, and then, holding the bait in the left hand, between the forefinger and thumb, swinging it across the water; in any case strive to drop it in with gentleness. You then walk along the bank, trolling or trailing the bait through the water. When you get a bite give line freely, and allow at least five minutes to elapse before you strike and commence the contest. Strike very gently at first, in order to make sure that you have your game firmly hooked; indeed, some anglers recommend a delay of *ten minutes* between the pull and the strike. The pike, however, is so voracious that he rarely plays with the bait; and, in our opinion, five minutes are ample space. Keep the pike's head well up, and, if possible, get his mouth to the surface; nothing will exhaust him sooner. As soon as he is within reach, use the gaff or landing net; but take care of your hands, as he will bite fiercely. Take hold of him with caution, and seize him firmly over the back, plunging your forefinger and thumb into his gills.

The *Snap* consists of three hooks, the two lower large but compressed by a spring, the uppermost small. When the fish is struck the spring gives way, and the hooks spreading, he is securely held. The dead bait on the gorge hook is the one that we recommend; it saves us from unnecessary cruelty, and is as efficacious a mode of fishing for pike as you



a, dead snap with three hooks; *b*, the same baited.

can well adopt. Another method is fishing with a float and a live bait. For this purpose pass the hook through a



Trimmer baited.

gudgeon's lips, or back fin; use strong tackle, an *armed* hook, or otherwise it will be bitten in two, and a large cork-float; fish about midwater. It was thus that the pike was caught the other morning so near our own residence. When young the pike is called a Jack.

THE EEL.—The eel is a creature which appears to be in a great measure the connecting link between the fish and serpent. It can reside wholly in the water like the former; and, if it be allowed a little moisture, almost wholly on the land, like the latter. The generation of eels has long been a mystery; but we are disposed to regard them as oviparous,

spawning like other fish, about May. They live long; are of very slow growth; but frequently, under favourable circumstances, attain to a very large size. This fish affords no sport, is very dirty to handle, and very hard to kill; but it is, at the same time, excellent eating, and this consideration may possibly induce some of our young friends to overlook the others. In angling for eels, bait an *armed* hook with a lob-worm, or a bit of *salmon roe;* let the bait lie upon the bottom. On feeling a pull, do not strike for some minutes; and when you do strike do it softly, rather *pulling* than *striking*, until the confirmed resistance tells you that your bait is gorged; you then gradually elevate your rod, so as to keep your line straight, with a dead pull upon the eel. Use only a passive resistance to his efforts; if you employ force, it is a hundred to one but you lose both the fish and your tackle; but in only using passive resistance you have a decided advantage, as each time the eel relaxes in order to obtain a fresh purchase with his tail, the elasticity of your rod dislodges a portion of him from his hole, until at length you by degrees have achieved your conquest. When caught, take care that in his twistings and writhings the slimy fish do not entangle your tackle. To kill him, turn him on his back and give him a few blows over the *navel*, or *vent*, with a piece of stick; this is far more certain than the more common method of striking his tail against the ground. The eel is very tenacious of life; we have ourselves seen one whose head was cut off at eight o'clock in the morning, still writhing and twisting at six in the evening, and the same still retaining life after having been disembowelled. It is to be hoped, however, that these writhings and twistings are rather the result of spasmodic action, independent of sensation, than of actual vitality.

In a river, after a flood, you may have much amusement by "*bobbing*." This is effected thus:—Obtain a number of large earth-worms, and passing a needle, thread with a skein of worsted, from the head to the tail of each in succession,

until you have about twenty thus strung, double them into a *hank*, about four or five inches in length; tie this to a piece of strong cord, which attach to the end of a light pole. You drop this into the flood, and the instant you feel a pull, strike rapidly, casting the eel, whose teeth have been partially entangled in the worsted, up upon the bank. Your best plan is to walk gradually *down* the river, as the eels swim up against the flood.

Eels may also be taken by night lines. This is managed as follows:—Procure a number of links formed of twisted gut, with a strong hook attached, armed on the shank with lead or brass wire. Noose these, at proper intervals, to pieces of whipcord about ten or twelve feet long; bait with pieces of gudgeon, or bits of raw meat; fasten one end to the bank and cast the other into the water. Dark nights in August and September are about the best times for setting night lines; and the best places are near old bridges, old walls, or wharfs, and old docks, where decayed boats are lying.

We now bid our youthful readers farewell! Our pleasing task is concluded. To us it was indeed a grateful one, as recalling many happy reminiscences of long bygone times, carrying us back in imagination to the noisy play-ground of our boyhood, and literally making us to "fight all our battles o'er again,"—that our efforts may prove satisfactory, and may afford cheerful and healthful recreation during that portion of time not devoted to study, is our earnest wish, and trusting that this wish may be fully realized, we once again say, "Young friends, adieu!"

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